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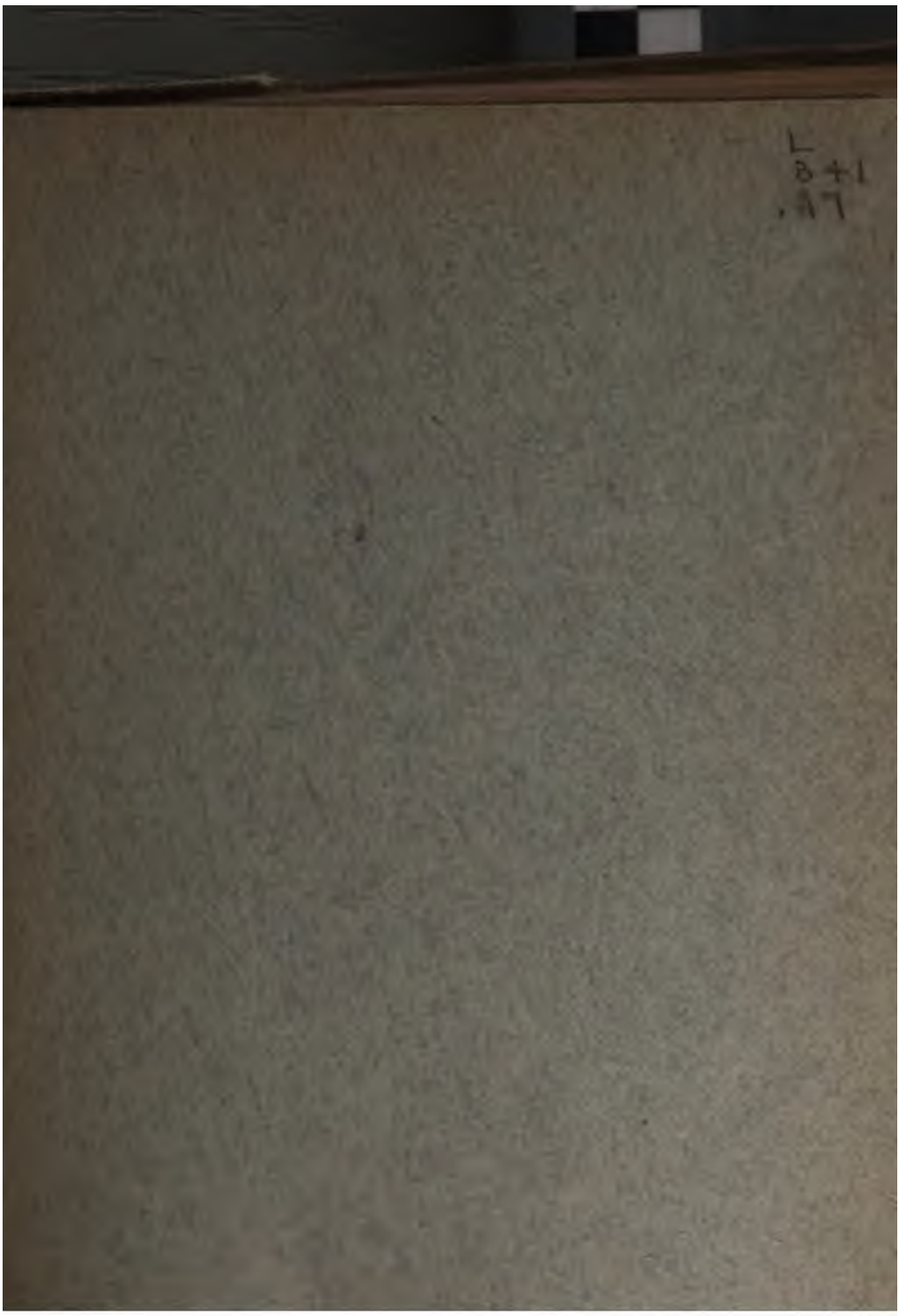
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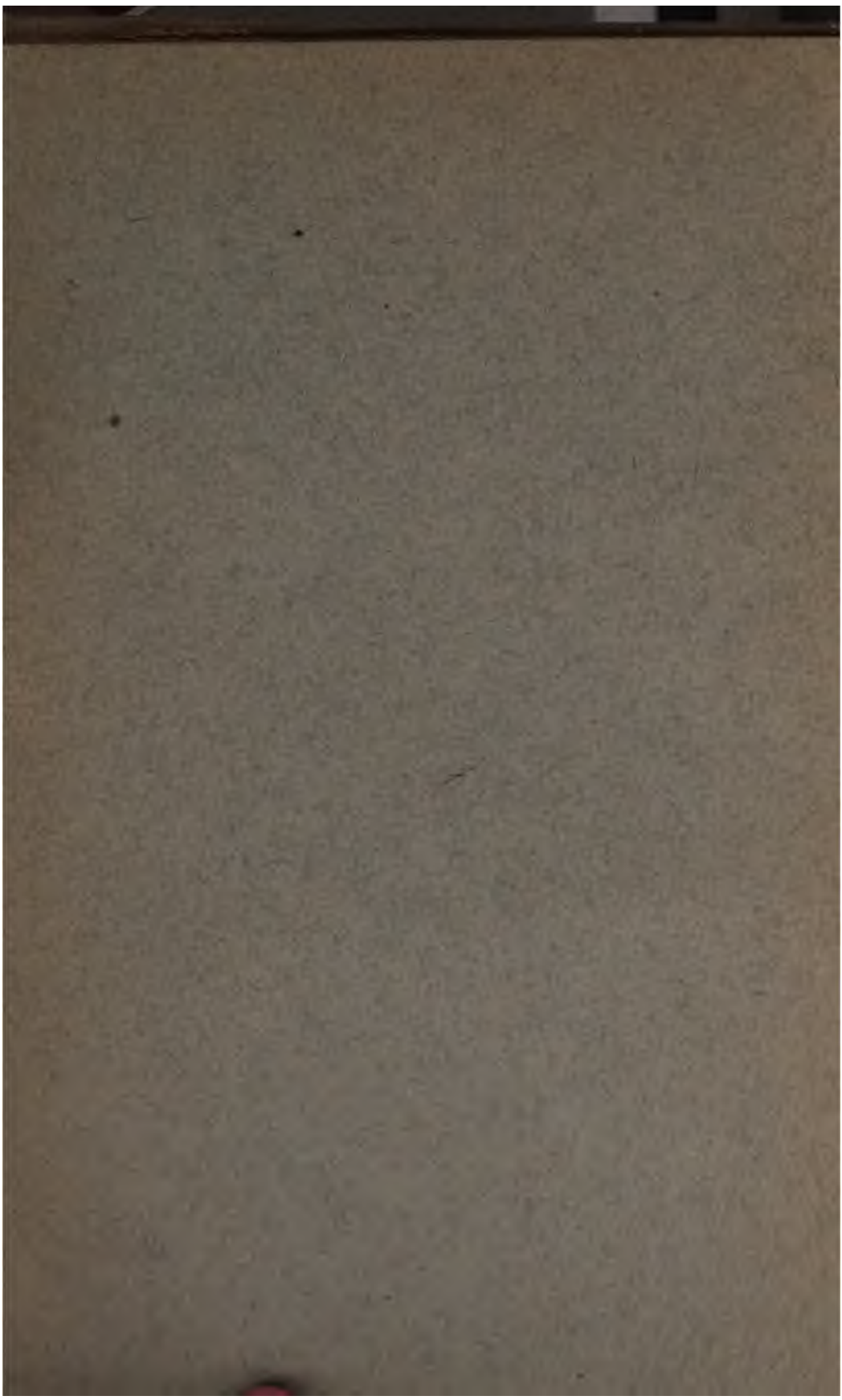

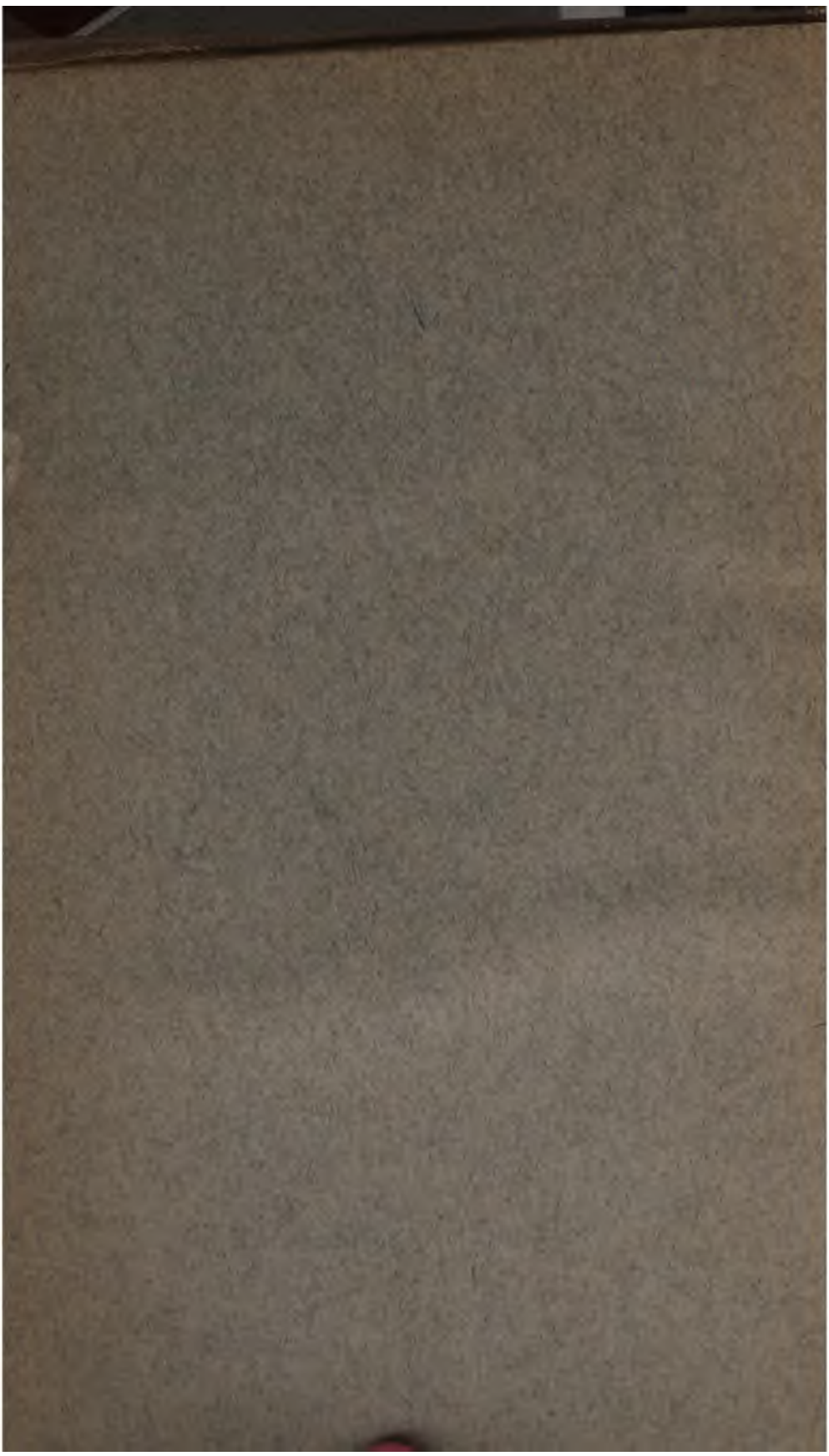

EDUCATION DEPARTMENT.

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ON

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1896-7.

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To Sir G. W. KEKEWICH, K.C.B.,

Secretary of the Education Department.

SIR

I HAVE the honour to present to you the accompanying volume of Reports on educational subjects, which form a selection from the Memoranda prepared by or for the Office of Special Inquiries and Reports during 1896-97.

This volume is the first of a series which it is proposed to publish on the educational systems of this and other countries. In view of the interest now taken in the comparison of different methods of teaching and of different forms of school-organization, it is hoped that the following reports may be found useful by students of education. Though miscellaneous in character, the papers in this volume refer to aspects of educational work to which much attention is now being given in this country. It will be understood that reports on other important branches of education, especially as regards the systems of France, Switzerland, Scandinavia, and the United States, are only deferred to a second volume which is now being prepared. It is intended that the latter shall also contain accounts of the Scottish system of public education and of intermediate education in Wales.

Each Report bears the name of its author, and it should be understood that only the writers are responsible for the opinions therein expressed.

I am,

Sir,

Your obedient servant,

MICHAEL E. SADLER,

Director of Special Inquiries and Reports.

Education Department Library,
43, Parliament Street,
London, S.W.

June 1897.

CONTENTS.

Page

1. **Public Elementary Education in England and Wales, 1870-1895.** 1
   By Messrs. M. E. Sadler and J. W. Edwards.

2. **English Students in Foreign Training Colleges** - - 72
   By Miss L. Manley, Principal of the Stockwell Training College; Miss Williams, President of the Franco-English Guild, Paris, and Lecturer at the École Normale Supérieure at Fontenay-aux-Roses; and Mr. H. L. Withers, Principal of the Borough Road Training College, Isleworth.

3. **Brush Work in an Elementary School (with illustrations)** - 101
   By Mr. Seth Coward, Head Master of the Alma Road Board School, London.

4. **The A B C of Drawing: an inquiry into the principles underlying elementary instruction in drawing (with illustrations).** 115
   By Mr. Ebenezer Cooke.

5. **Domestic Economy Teaching in England** - - - 156
   By Mrs. Pillow, Examiner in Domestic Science Subjects to the London Technical Education Board, the Joint Scholarships Board, the City and Guilds Technological Institute, the University Colleges of Wales, and the National Training School of Cookery.

6. **Technical Education for Girls** - - - - - - 185-7
   By Miss A. J. Cooper, late Head Mistress of the Girls' High School, Edgbaston, Tutor to the Women Students under the Scheme of the Oxford University Delegacy of Local Examinations for the Training of Teachers in Secondary Schools.

7. **The Secondary Day School attached to the Battersea Polytechnic, London—an experiment in the co-education of boys and girls.** 194
   By Mr. Sidney H. Wells, Principal of the Battersea Polytechnic.

8. **The History of the Irish System of Elementary Education** - 209
   By Mr. M. E. Sadler.

9. **The National System of Education in Ireland** - - - 289
   By The Right Hon. C. T. Redington, D.L., Commissioner of National Education in Ireland.

10. **Recent Legislation on Elementary Education in Belgium** - 256
    By Messrs. M. E. Sadler and R. L. Morant.

11. **The Housewifery Schools and Classes of Belgium** - - 271
    By Miss K. S. Block and Miss L. Brackenbury.

12. **The French System of Higher Primary Schools** - - 285
    By Mr. R. L. Morant, Assistant Director of Special Inquiries and Reports.

13. **The Realschulen in Berlin, and their bearing on modern Secondary and Commercial Education.** 373
    By Mr. M. E. Sadler.

14. **The Ober-Realschulen of Prussia, with special reference to the Ober-Realschule at Charlottenburg.** 433
    By Mr. M. E. Sadler.

15. **The Prussian Elementary School Code** - - - - - 468
    Translated by Mr. A. E. Twentyman, Brasenose College, Oxford.

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Page

16. **The Continuation Schools in Saxony** - - - - 479
By Mr. F. H. Dale, Fellow of Merton College Oxford, formerly Tutor at Borough Road Training College, Isleworth.

17. **The School Journey in Germany** - - - - - 510
By Miss C. L. Dodd, Training Department, Owens College, Manchester.

18. **The Teaching of the Mother Tongue in Germany** - - 533
By Mr. F. H. Dale, Fellow of Merton College, Oxford, formerly Tutor at Borough Road Training College, Isleworth.

19. **Holiday Courses in France and Germany for Instruction in Modern Languages.** 577
By Messrs. F. S. Marvin, one of Her Majesty's Inspectors of Schools, and R. L. Morant.

20. **Recent Educational Progress in Denmark (with maps)** - 585
By Mr. J. S. Thornton.

21. **Education in Egypt** - - - - - - - - 613
By Mr. P. A. Barnett, one of Her Majesty's Inspectors of Schools.

22. **The Education of Girls and Women in Spain** - - - 626
By Señor don Fernando de Arteago, Taylorian Teacher of Spanish in the University of Oxford.

23. **The National Bureau of Education of the United States** - 645
By Mr. R. L. Morant.

24. **The History of the Manitoba School System and the Issues of the Recent Controversy.** 656
By Mr. R. L. Morant.

25. **Arrangements for the admission of Women to the chief Universities in the British Empire and in foreign countries.** 687
By Mr. M. E. Sadler, with the help of Mr. J. W. Longsdon.

26. **Appendix giving a list of the chief official papers bearing on Education in Great Britain and Ireland.** 718
Prepared by Mr. M. E. Sadler.

Public Elementary Education in England and Wales, 1870–1895.

Summary.

	Page
I. Introductory	2
II. Central Authorities: Brief historical summary of legislation, &c., 1833–93	9
III. School Boards and School Attendance Committees	13
Tables.—Population under school boards, school attendance committees, and subject to byelaws	15
Number of boards distributed according to population	16
Number of board schools	16
Population under byelaw standards	17
IV. Schools under Voluntary Managers: Table.—Inspected schools arranged under denominations	22
V. The Cost of Public Elementary Education: Tables.—Aid from the central authorities	23
Sums paid by local rating authorities and liabilities of school boards in respect of outstanding loans	26
Voluntary subscriptions for maintenance and income from endowments	27
School fees paid by parents and guardians	28
Amounts contributed towards the maintenance of training colleges for teachers in elementary schools	29
Approximate total expenditure on public elementary education, 1870–95, showing the proportion of expense borne by the central authorities and the localities	30
Table showing the proportion of the estimated cost of public elementary education and of the maintenance of training colleges which fell (*a*) on the central funds of the State, (*b*) on other sources of income, 1870–95	32
VI. The Codes and the Conditions of the Award of Grants	33
Tables.—Grants under the Codes 1871–81	36
Grants for schools for older scholars, 1882–95	40
Grants for infant schools and classes, 1882–95	42
Grants common to all day schools, 1882–95	43
Grants for evening schools, 1871–95	44
Limitations of the amount of day school grant, 1871–95	45
VII. The Teaching Staff: Tables.—Number of teachers in public elementary day schools	46
Average salaries of certificated teachers	47
Accommodation in training colleges and number of students under training	47
VIII. Schools, Accommodation, Number of Scholars, Average Attendance: Tables.—Day schools, 1871–95	48

VIII. Schools, Accommodation, &c.—*continued.* Page
Tables.—Day schools, 1871–95, cost of maintenance - 49
„ „ per-centage table - - 50
„ „ age of scholars - - 51
Half-time scholars attending public elementary schools - - - - - - 53
An average day school according to the statistics of 1895 - - - - - - 53
Evening schools, 1870–93, and Evening Continuation Schools, 1893–5 - - - 54
IX. Subjects of Instruction in Day Schools - - - 56
Class subjects. Table of subjects, 1884–95 - - - 58
Specific „ „ „ 1872–95 - - - 60
Singing. Table of school departments teaching singing by ear and by note - - - - - - 66
Military drill. Table of school departments in which such instruction was given - - - - 67
Cottage gardening. Table of school departments in which such instruction was given - - - - 67
Cookery. Table of school departments in which instruction was given - - - - - - 68
Laundry work. Table of school departments in which such instruction was given - - - - 68
Dairy work. Table of school departments in which such instruction was given - - - - - 68
Domestic economy, cookery, laundry, and dairy work. Table of scholars receiving grants for instruction in these subjects - - - - - - - - 69
Drawing, manual instruction, science, physical exercises. Table of school departments in which such instruction was given - - - - - - - 70
X. School Savings Banks and School Libraries - - 71

I.—Introductory.

The following pages aim at showing in a statistical form the progress which was made towards a general provision of elementary education in England and Wales during the first quarter of a century from the passing of the Elementary Education Act, 1870. The tables trace the growth of the operations of the central and local authorities since that time; show to how great an extent public subsidies have been supplemented by voluntary contributions; and give an approximate estimate of the total amount spent on public elementary education (including the training of teachers) during the period under review. They contain an analysis of the conditions on which grants were paid to the schools under the various Codes of the Education Department in force during the years 1870–95. They indicate the increase in the number of teachers, the amount of their average salaries, and the contrast between the number of students who, at the beginning and end of the period, were in course of training for the profession of teaching in elementary schools. They give the number of day and evening schools under inspection for 1870–95, the number of scholars on their registers and in average attendance, and the ages of the pupils in the day schools. Further details are also given as to the subjects of instruction and the provision which has been made for school libraries and school savings banks.

The summaries (so far at least as the statistics can be separated) do not deal with Poor Law schools or industrial schools, nor with the category of "simple inspected schools" or, as they have been called since 1876, "certified efficient schools," *i.e.*, schools which, while under State inspection, do not participate in the annual grant from public funds. Nor is the elementary education given in the military and naval schools included in the statistics.

Among the figures the following have salient importance :—

(i.) The total expenditure from all sources on public elementary education in England and Wales (including the maintenance of training colleges for teachers), during the period under review, may be estimated at 219,045,134*l.*;* or, if we leave out of account the liabilities of the school boards in respect of loans outstanding at the end of the period, at 194,668,716*l.* Within a brief period this country has accomplished the work of providing a universal system of public education—a task which in many other countries has been spread over a much longer period. It should be noticed that a large part of the outlay has been of the nature of capital expenditure on school buildings and the sites for their erection. It would, therefore, be fallacious to divide the total expenditure by the number of children who have passed through the schools during the same term of years, and to regard the quotient as the average cost of each scholar's education. The nation will receive a direct return on much of its past expenditure throughout several future generations of school children.

(ii.) It is an interesting economic question how large a proportion of this expenditure of, roughly, 219,000,000*l.* has been defrayed out of Imperial taxation, and how much has been undertaken by the localities concerned. Owing to the number of sources from which school income has been derived during the period under review, various answers would be given to this question according to the view taken as to what should be reckoned as local contributions. It may be held that local rates and the voluntary subscriptions, which are virtually paid in lieu of rates, should alone be reckoned in this category. Others again would include school fees, and fees paid by students at training colleges, under the head of local contributions. In any case the cost of building the schools should be counted as well as the cost of what is technically known as their maintenance. But this raises another question, viz., whether the liabilities of the school boards in respect of outstanding loans should be reckoned in the calcula-

* This calculation can only be approximate. The figures on which it is based are stated and explained on pp. 23–32 below.

tion as well as the sums actually received by the school boards from the local rating authorities. The sums thus raised by loans have (with the exception of a comparatively small amount) been actually spent. But, though they thus form a charge which the localities have undertaken, they represent a sum not yet actually repaid out of local resources. It seems right, however, to include these outstanding loans in the total expenditure on public elementary education during the period, drawing attention to the fact that part of the loans and of the moneys received from rating authorities have been expended on industrial schools and other purposes, and not on public elementary schools strictly so called.*

The simplest course, therefore, is to divide the expenditure into two parts, viz., that which has been defrayed by the State, and that which has been met, or remains a charge upon, other sources of income. Thus divided, the whole expenditure of 209,045,134*l.* has been undertaken as follows:—

	£
By the central funds of the State -	79,895,762, or 36·4 per cent.
By other sources of income - -	139,149,372, or 63·5 per cent.
	219,045,134

If it is asked, however, what proportion of the expenditure fell on the central funds of the State, and what on the other sources of income, in any given year during the period under review, a further difficulty arises. A considerable part of the expenditure has been on the building of voluntary schools. But the Education Department receives no accounts of the sums thus expended on what is technically called "voluntary school provision," as distinguished from "voluntary school maintenance." Through the kindness of the educational authorities of the various denominational or other voluntary school agencies concerned, we are able to present an approximate estimate of the total sum expended on voluntary school "provision" during the 25 years following 1870. The sum reached by calculations on the data thus provided (a detailed statement of which will be found on a later page in this memorandum), is 11,030,027*l.* But we have no means of saying how much of this sum was actually expended in any one of the years under review. In order, therefore, to give an approximate

* For details, see page 30 below.

statement of the proportion of the total expenditure on education borne or undertaken by the central funds of the State and by other sources of income respectively at quinquennial intervals, from 1871 to 1891, and year by year since that date, we have assigned to each year one twenty-fifth part of the aggregate outlay on voluntary school provision. On this basis the following results are reached:—

Year.	Proportion of Expenditure defrayed from the Exchequer.	Proportion of Expenditure defrayed or undertaken by all other Sources of Income.
1871 - - - -	37·16	62·84
1876 - - - -	25·89	74·11
1881 - - - -	31·93	68·07
1886 - - - -	35·08	64·92
1891 - - - -	36·41	63·59
1892 - - - -	46·00	54·00
1893 - - - -	50·54	49·46
1894 - - - -	48·44	51·56
1895 - - - -	47·68	52·32

It will be noticed that the effects of the Elementary Education Act, 1891 (fee grant), became noticeable in the year 1892.

(iii.) The grants from the Education Department for the 25 years from 1871 to 1895 amounted to 78,603,892*l.*, and the grants from the Science and Art Department for elementary schools and training colleges to 1,291,870*l.*, a total from the central authorities of 79,895,762*l.* This total does not include grants paid by the Science and Art Department in aid of Organised Science Schools.

(iv.) On the other hand, during the same period, the sums paid to school boards from local rates have amounted to 49,567,066*l.*, while the liabilities of school boards in respect of outstanding loans came to 24,376,418*l.*, representing a total expenditure of 73,943,484*l.* Of the outstanding loans, some small part would not have been actually spent on September 29, 1895, when the last return used in this memorandum was made. Some part has also been spent on industrial schools.*

(v.) Voluntary subscriptions and the income from endowments, so far as the sums derived from both these sources were spent on the maintenance, as distinguished from the provision, of schools and training colleges, amounted during the period to 21,892,146*l.* The sum expended

* For the necessary qualification of these figures, see page 30 below.

from voluntary subscriptions during the same term of years on the provision of schools (excluding training colleges) may perhaps be fairly estimated at 11,030,027*l.* The data on which this estimate is based will be found below. As the professional preparation of the teachers is essential to the efficiency of the educational system, it seems right to include the cost of the maintenance of training colleges in the total expenditure on public elementary education. But we have not been able to form an approximate estimate of the voluntary subscriptions spent on the buildings, as distinct from the maintenance, of training colleges during the years under review.

(vi.) The fees paid by the parents or by poor law guardians for scholars attending public elementary schools during the years 1871–95 amounted to 31,699,991*l.* Owing to the operation of the Elementary Education Act, 1891, the amounts paid in school fees during the last three years of the period under review were comparatively small. The fees paid by or for students in training colleges, including the fees paid by such students for books, amounted during the 25 years to 583,724*l.*

(vii.) Between 1870 and 1895 the number of public elementary day schools increased from 8,798 to 19,739; the number of scholars on the registers from 1,802,419 to 5,299,469; and the number of scholars in average attendance from 1,231,434 to 4,325,030. The percentage of scholars on the registers to the estimated population rose from 7·91 to 17·43; that of the scholars in average attendance from 6·31 to 14·23; and that of scholars in average attendance to the number on the registers from 68·32 to 81·61.

(viii.) In the course of the 25 years more than 14,250,000 children have attended the public elementary day schools. The exact number cannot be given. The total here named is a minimum figure.

(ix.) The number of children in average attendance at voluntary schools rose from 1,231,434 in 1871 to 2,445,812 in 1895. The first returns of board schools are of those inspected during the year ending August 31st, 1872. There were then 82 schools, with an average attendance of 8,726 children. The number of children in average attendance in board schools in 1895 was 1,879,218.

(x.) The average expenditure on maintenance only (*i.e.*, excluding the cost of providing new schools and of structural alterations, and extraordinary repairs in existing schools) per scholar in average attendance rose (i.) in board schools from 1*l.* 8*s.* 4¼*d.* in 1872 to 2*l.* 10*s.* 1¾*d.* in 1895; and (ii.) in voluntary schools from 1*l.* 7*s.* 5*d.* in 1872 to 1*l.* 18*s.* 11¼*d.* in 1895.

(xi.) The number of children at school under three years of age has decreased. In 1872 there were 18,755; in 1895 there were only 3,508. On the other hand the per-centage of scholars who are over 10 years of age has increased. In 1875 it was 29·13; in 1895, 35·27. In 1895 there were in the public elementary schools 7,347 scholars over 15 years of age. The number of half-time scholars in public elementary schools has fallen from 201,284 in 1876 to 126,896 in 1895.

(xii.) The average attendance in evening schools rose from 83,457 in 1871 to 129,523 in 1895. Half-way through the period under review the number in average attendance had fallen to 24,434. During recent years the influence of the new Evening Continuation School Code (introduced in 1893) has greatly increased the attractiveness of this class of school, and has caused a remarkable growth in the number of scholars.

(xiii.) During the 25 years there was a great increase in the number of schools in which singing is taught by note. This form of instruction (as distinguished from teaching singing by ear) was given in 3,776 departments of schools in 1874; in 1895 the number had risen to 22,302.

(xiv.) In 1890 drawing was made an obligatory subject for boys in schools for older scholars, and the number of schools in which such instruction was given in 1895 was 18,145.

(xv.) Manual instruction, physical exercises, cookery, and domestic economy have become, year by year, features in the curriculum of an increasing number of schools.

(xvi.) The number of schools with savings banks increased from 848 in 1879 (before which year no record was kept) to 8,410 in 1895. On the introduction of free education in 1891 a great many school savings banks were established, the number rising from 2,629 in 1891 to 6,383 in 1892. The largest number of these savings banks was recorded in 1894, when it had risen to 8,668.

(xvii.) The number of schools with school libraries in 1880 (when the record was begun) was 2,092. In 1895 it had increased to 6,381.

(xviii.) There has been a great increase in the number of women as compared with that of men engaged as teachers in public elementary schools. Between 1870 and 1895 the number of certificated men teachers rose from 6,395 to 21,223, and that of certificated women teachers from 6,072 to 31,718. Similarly, while the number of men assistant teachers increased from 487 to 5,047, that of women engaged in the same capacity has risen from 775 to 22,914. Account must also be taken of 11,678 women who are engaged as "additional

teachers." In 1870 there were 6,384 boys and 8,228 girls employed as pupil-teachers. The figures for 1895 were 7,246 and 26,757 respectively.

(xix.) The average salary of both men and women certificated teachers increased during the period under review. That of masters rose from 94*l.* per annum in 1870 to 122*l.* in 1895, and that of mistresses from 57*l.* to 81*l.* in the same term of years.

(xx.) In the residential training colleges accommodation for students increased 45·4 per cent. in the 25 years from 1870 to 1895. Within the same period, largely owing to the establishment of day training colleges in 1890, the number of students receiving preparation for their professional career as teachers in elementary schools increased 89·2 per cent.

It is hoped that the figures which are summarised in this report may be found useful for comparison and reference. But statistical tables cannot show what has really been the most significant fact in the history of our elementary education since 1870; namely, the increasing importance which has been attached by the nation at large to the efficiency of its schools. It is hardly too much to say that the years which have elapsed since the passing of Mr. Forster's Act have witnessed, especially in the towns, the growth of a new public sentiment in favour of education. Noble, indeed, were the sacrifices which were made by religious denominations, by societies, and by individual benefactors for popular education in England before that date. Those efforts laid the foundations necessary to all later success. But they were hampered by the apathy of the masses of the people, for no system of national education can become or remain effective without popular sympathy and interest. Since 1870, however, the attitude of the nation as a whole towards elementary education has undergone a surprising change. The value of a good school has become more widely appreciated, and parents evince an increasing desire to secure the benefits of efficient teaching for their children. This change in public opinion has made possible much which the zeal of educational reformers, the goodwill of local authorities, the liberality of subscribers, and the experience and devotion of the teachers would otherwise have been powerless to effect. It has permitted great expenditure in order that, within the lifetime of a single generation, dangerous deficiencies might be removed. It has allowed gradual improvements to be made in the equipment of the schools and in the conditions of attendance. It has created in a great number of places the atmosphere of sympathy and encouragement which is necessary to the welfare of the schools. And the change may be traced to a growing belief in the value and necessity of education, which cannot fail to increase the number of persons competent to take part in the local administration of educational affairs, and thus to form the best guarantee for wise advance, intelligent criticism, and prudent expenditure in the future.

It was natural that the chief features of the work of the first quarter of a century after the passing of the Act of 1870 should be the rapid overtaking of deficiency and the improvement of the necessary educational machinery. But there are signs that the most important task of teachers and educational administrators during the next period will lie in a direction which will call for no less expenditure of thought and pains. It may be that the welfare of national education will make it necessary to give closer attention to another class of questions hardly less difficult than those which have already been solved. Such are the adjustment and balance of studies so as to form a well-planned whole extending throughout the period of school life; the more exact definition, in the light of experience, of the specific aim of each type of school; the clearer classification of schools according to their several functions; the fitting of the work of one grade of school into that of the next; and the closer examination of the educational values of the different subjects of instruction and of their claim to a place in a course of training which seeks not prematurely to impart some technical dexterity, but to develop the whole nature of the child and to foster the harmonious growth of its moral, physical, and intellectual powers. For the solution of these difficulties it will be necessary to combine educational experience with administrative skill. Such a combination is possible when the administrators and the teachers have confidence in one another and are enabled to work together both in the direction of educational policy and the practical management of schools. But the success of their labours, the possibility of their being able to frame and carry out a well-considered plan, cannot but depend on the readiness of the public to place confidence in their judgment. And this confidence, it may be hoped, has been earned by the remarkable progress which has been made during the last 25 years towards the building up of an effective system of national elementary education.

II.—Central Authorities.

*Brief Historical Summary.**

i.

(1.) Annual Parliamentary grants towards elementary education in Great Britain were first made in 1833, 20,000*l.* being granted in that year. These grants were at first administered by the Treasury and were applied solely in aid of the building of schools. In 1839 an Order in Council appointed a Committee of Council to "superintend the application of any sums voted by Parliament "for the purpose of promoting public education." This placed

* A valuable summary of the administration of the education grants, 1832–1885, will be found in the Final Report of the Royal Commission on the Elementary Education Acts, 1888, pp. 3–44.

the administration of the education grants under the supervision of a special department. One of the first acts of the Committee of Council was the establishment of a system of inspection as a condition of public aid. In 1843 the Committee of Council offered for the first time grants towards the erection of training colleges, the building or enlargement of teachers' houses and the provision of school furniture and apparatus. In 1846 a part of the annual Parliamentary grant was made applicable to a new purpose, viz., the augmentation of teachers' salaries, the payment of stipends of pupil-teachers and of allowances to the teachers who trained them, and the establishment of Queen's Scholarships to enable pupil-teachers at the end of their apprenticeship to enter a training college. In 1853 direct payments were first made from the Parliamentary grant towards the annual income of schools in the form of capitation grants for each scholar making a certain number of attendances. These capitation grants, at first limited to schools in agricultural districts or unincorporated towns, were shortly afterwards extended to all schools. The office of Vice-President of the Committee of Council on Education was established in 1856. Two years later a Royal Commission was appointed, with the Duke of Newcastle as chairman, to report on the state of popular education in England.

During the years 1832–1860, the annual Parliamentary grant towards elementary education in Great Britain increased from 20,000*l.* to 798,167*l.* From the establishment of the Committee of Council on Education in 1839 to 1860, the total Parliamentary grants amounted, 4,378,183*l.* Of this sum a little over a million pounds had been spent on building, enlarging, repairing, and furnishing elementary schools; 172,000*l.* had been spent on the erection and equipment of training colleges; 417,000*l.* in annual grants to training colleges; 460,000*l.* in augmenting the salaries of certificated school masters and mistresses, or in paying the salaries of assistant teachers; 1,487,000*l.* in paying stipends of pupil-teachers and allowances for their special instruction; and 355,000*l.* in inspection.*

(2.) After the presentation of the report of the Duke of Newcastle's Commission in 1861 the Government introduced the Revised Code which abolished payments from the Parliamentary grant to individual teachers, and consolidated all the payments to each school (as distinguished from building grants) into a capitation grant, payable to the managers and based on the results of the attendance and the results of individual examination of the scholars. The conditions of the Revised Code were somewhat amended in 1862, but the principle of payment by results on individual examination (except in the case of children under seven years of age) was retained, and it continued for many years to be the fundamental principle on which the Parliamentary grant was distributed to the elementary schools. In 1867 a modification of the Code encouraged instruction beyond the

* Duke of Newcastle's Commission Report, Vol. I., p. 677.

elementary subjects and offered premiums to encourage the better training of pupil-teachers. The amount of the Parliamentary grant, which had declined from 813,000*l.* in 1861 to 636,806*l.* in 1865, now began to rise again and amounted in 1869 to 773,839*l.*

(3.) The Elementary Education Act of 1870 made, for the first time in England and Wales, general statutory provision for elementary education. It called into existence school boards as the local authorities charged with the duty of establishing and maintaining elementary schools in districts where voluntary effort had failed to provide such schools or was unequal to the task of efficiently maintaining them.

The Act abolished building grants, except such as were applied for before the end of 1870. It gave school boards the power to require the rating authority to meet any deficiency in their school fund out of local rate. It was accompanied by the promise of an increased grant for maintenance.* It armed school boards with the power to adopt byelaws respecting the attendance of children at school. It separated religious from secular education, making the annual grant payable in respect of the latter only, and thus enabled children to obtain secular instruction without receiving religious teaching if their parents objected to that given in the school. And it provided that in schools provided by school boards no religious catechism or religious formulary which is distinctive of any particular denomination should be taught in the school.

(4.) In 1872 the Scotch Education Department was created by Act of Parliament. The Elementary Education Act of 1876 provided, among other things, additional means to secure the attendance of children at school, restricting the employment of children under 14 years of age, unless before that age they complied with certain educational conditions It established school attendance committees in districts not under the jurisdiction of school boards. It also made it for the first time the statutory duty of every parent to cause his children to receive efficient elementary instruction in reading, writing, and arithmetic.

The Act of 1880 established universal direct compulsion to attend school by making it the duty of every local educational authority to make byelaws regulating school attendance. The Code of 1882 made important modifications in the award of the grant and amended the course of instruction in infant schools.

In 1886 a Royal Commission was appointed, under the chairmanship of Lord Cross, to inquire into the working of the Elementary Education Acts in England and Wales. The report of the Commission was published in 1888.

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* In its original form, Mr. Forster's Bill gave school boards the power of aiding voluntary schools out of rates, provided that they so assisted all the voluntary schools within their area. This proposal was withdrawn on going into Committee on the Bill. An increase in the parliamentary grant was at the same time promised as a measure of compensation for the change.

(5.) Important changes were made in the Code of 1890 encouraging drawing, science, manual instruction, and physical exercises in elementary day schools.

(6.) The Act of 1891 provided for the payment of a fee grant in place or in diminution of school fees payable by scholars in public elementary schools. This Act has gone far towards providing a system of free elementary education.

In 1893 the age at which a child may obtain total or partial exemption from school attendance, on obtaining the educational certificate required by the byelaws of a local authority, was raised to 11 years.

ii.*

A Select Committee of the House of Commons, first appointed in 1835 to inquire into the best means of extending a knowledge of the arts and of the principles of design among the people (especially the manufacturing population) of the country, reported in 1836 in favour of the establishment of schools of design. A Parliamentary grant of 1,500*l.* having been made for the purpose, a Government school of design was opened in London in 1837 under the direction of an honorary council, of which the Vice-President of the Board of Trade was an ex-officio member. In 1841 the formation of schools of design in the manufacturing districts was encouraged by the provision of an annual grant for the training and payment of teachers and the purchase of appliances of instruction. The Board of Trade administered the Parliamentary grant for the schools of design.

In 1852 a Department of Practical Art was established, the Council being abolished, and in the following year a Science Division was added, the name of the whole being changed to the "Department of Science and Art." The Department remained under the direction of the Board of Trade until 1856, when the Education Department was constituted under the Lord President of the Council and the Vice-President of the Committee of Council on Education, to include the Education Establishment of the Privy Council Office and the Department of Science and Art. The Department was removed to South Kensington in 1857.

In 1854 teachers in elementary schools were encouraged to qualify themselves in drawing by the offer of payments on the results of the instruction of the pupil-teachers in their schools. Prizes were offered in the following year to pupils in elementary schools instructed in drawing by masters of Schools of Art. In 1856 collective examinations in drawing were held at Schools of Art for scholars in elementary schools and an examination in drawing was established for the students in training colleges. In 1878 special regulations were made for the

* The following summary is based on the "Calendar, History, and General Regulations of the Department of Science and Art."

examination in science of students in training colleges. Grants for instruction in drawing are made by the Department to public elementary schools, and drawing has (since 1890) been compulsory for all boys in such schools (except infant schools) in England and Wales. The amount of grants paid under various heads by the Department to public elementary schools and training colleges during the years 1871–95 are stated on page 23.

The recognition, as Organised Science Schools, of schools providing methodical or systematic instruction in science has, since 1872, given great encouragement to scientific teaching, and the list of these schools now includes many higher grade elementary schools. The curriculum of the Organised Science Schools was materially altered by new regulations in 1895.

(For further details of the history of the Department reference should be made to the "Calendar, History, and General Summary of the "Regulations of the Department of Science and Art.")

III.—School Boards, School Attendance Committees, and Byelaws.

By the Elementary Education Act, 1870, school boards could be formed for the following school districts: for the metropolis, for all municipal boroughs except Oxford, for the district of the local board of Oxford, and for all parishes not included in any of the above-mentioned districts. The formation of the School Board for London was ordered by the Act; and, in all other districts, boards could be formed (1) voluntarily, *i.e.*, on the application of the proper authority, the Education Department might cause a board to be formed for the district; or (2) compulsorily, *i.e.*, where there was a deficiency of school accommodation in any district, or the closing of a school would cause such deficiency, the Education Department might, after publishing proper notices if so required, order the district to elect a board. Power was also given to the Education Department to unite districts, and to make one school district contribute to another for educational purposes.

In addition to their duties of supplying and maintaining school accommodation for the district, the boards, whether elected voluntarily or compulsorily, were enabled to make byelaws for compelling children to attend school; but there was no power given to the Education Department to make boards frame byelaws, and without byelaws there were no means of making the children attend the schools which were provided for them. In one of the tables given below will be seen, for each year, the total population under the jurisdiction of boards and the total population subject to byelaws. It must be distinctly borne in mind that not only was there no compulsion on the part of parents to send their children to school in districts where

there were no byelaws, but that in all non-school board districts there was no power to make byelaws.

This anomaly continued for six years, viz., until 1st January 1877, when the Elementary Education Act, 1876 (passed in August 1876), came into force. This Act laid down first the declaration that "It shall be the duty of the parent of every "child to cause such child to receive efficient elementary "instruction in reading, writing, and arithmetic, and if such "parent fail to perform such duty, he shall be liable to such "orders and penalties as are provided by the Act," and then rendered an employer liable to a penalty who took into his employment a child (1) under the age of ten years; or (2) if of the age of ten years and upwards, who had not obtained the required certificate of proficiency in reading, writing, and elementary arithmetic, or of previous due attendance at a certified efficient school.

The Act also directed, that in all districts where there was not a school board, a school attendance committee should be appointed, either by the council of a municipal borough, or by an urban sanitary district under certain circumstances, or by the guardians of a union.

The power of making byelaws was still left to the option of the committee; and in the case of the union, it had no power to move but on the requisition of the parish desiring byelaws.

The whole population of England and Wales was thus placed under the jurisdiction of a school board or of a school attendance committee, all parents were held responsible for seeing that their children were educated, and all employers were punishable for employing children contrary to the law. Thus all children were compelled to be educated, and the penalties that could be imposed on the parents and on the employers tended to make the law respected. In districts, however, where no byelaws were in force, children, in order to qualify for employment, had only to comply with the modest requirements of the Act, viz., to be able to pass the 4th Standard, or to have attended school for 250 times in each year for five years after the age of five in not more than two schools.

It was not until 1881 that byelaws became universal, when the Elementary Education Act, 1880, empowered the Education Department to make byelaws for all school districts where local authorities had, by the 31st December 1880, failed to make them.

TABLE showing POPULATION of ENGLAND and WALES under SCHOOL BOARDS and SCHOOL ATTENDANCE COMMITTEES, also the Population subject to Byelaws until the Elementary Education Act, 1880, made Byelaws universal.

Year ending 1st April.	Total Population of England and Wales.	School Boards.				School Attendance Committees.				Total Per-centage of Population under Byelaws to Total Population of England and Wales.
		Population under School Boards.	Per-centage to Total Population.	Population under Byelaws of School Boards.	Per-centage to Total Population.	Population under School Attendance Committees	Per-centage to Total Population.	Population under Byelaws of School Attendance Committees	Per-centage to Total Population.	
1872	22,712,266 (Census of 1871.)	9,711,667	42·7	8,142,639	35·4					35·4
1873	„	9,994,582	44·0	8,926,349	39·3					39·3
1874	„	10,494,507	46·2	9,442,749	41·5					41·5
1875	„	11,647,998	51·2	9,856,041	43·3					43·3
1876	„	12,522,537	55·1	10,467,615	46·0					46·0
1877	„	12,829,851	56·4	11,221,363	49·4					49·4
1878	„	12,994,977	57·2	11,814,946	52·0	9,717,289	42·7	1,702,639	7·4	59·5
1879	„	13,150,219	57·8	12,395,550	54·5	9,562,047	42·1	3,083,609	13·5	68·1
1880	„	13,192,722	58·0	12,605,453	55·5	9,519,544	41·9	3,665,705	16·1	71·6
1881	„	13,318,492	58·6	13,318,492	58·6	9,393,744	41·3	9,393,744	41·3	100·0
1882	„	13,422,630	59·0			9,289,636	40·9			„
1883	25,974,439 (Census of 1881.)	15,980,403	61·5			9,994,036	38·4			„
1884	„	16,081,618	61·9			9,892,821	38·0			„
1885	„	16,153,855	62·1			9,820,584	37·8			„
1886	„	16,256,554	62·5			9,717,885	37·4			„
1887	„	16,284,451	62·7			9,689,988	37·2			„
1888	„	16,313,997	62·8			9,660,442	37·1			„
1889	„	16,413,395	63·1			9,561,044	36·8			„
1890	„	16,481,753	63·4			9,492,686	36·5			„
1891	„	16,580,279	63·8			9,394,160	36·1			„
1892	„	16,614,432	63·9			9,360,007	36·0			„
1893	29,002,525 (Census of 1891.)	19,199,335	66·1			9,803,190	33·8			„
1894	„	19,620,379	67·6			9,382,146	32·3			„
1895	„	19,760,433	68·1			9,242,092	31·8			„
1896	„	19,830,388*	68·3			9,172,137†	31·6			„

* This population is under the jurisdiction of 2,487 school boards, viz., the London School Board, 182 municipal boroughs boards, and 2,304 parish boards.

† This population is under the jurisdiction of 780 school attendance committees, viz., 122 in municipal boroughs, 79 in urban districts, and 579 in unions.

TABLE showing how the SCHOOL BOARDS are distributed among large or small populations (April 1, 1896).

	Number of Boards with Population									
	Under 250.	Between 251 and 500.	Between 501 and 750.	Between 751 and 1,000.	Between 1,001 and 2,000.	Between 2,001 and 3,000.	Between 3,001 and 4,000.	Between 4,001 and 5,000.	Over 5,000.	Total.
England - -	148	402	319	202	357	184	95	63	387	2,157 *2
Wales - - -	9	50	48	38	74	27	21	12	49	328
Total - -	157	452	367	240	431	211	116	75	436	2,487

Or to put these particulars in a shorter form:—

	Number of Boards with Population			
	Under 1,000	Between 1,000 and 5,000.	Over 5,000.	Total.
England - - -	1,071	699	387	2,157 *2
Wales - - - -	145	134	49	328
Total - -	1,216	833	436	2,487

* The population of two English boards is unknown.

NUMBER of PUBLIC ELEMENTARY DAY SCHOOLS under SCHOOL BOARDS.

Year ending 31st August.	Number of Schools.	Year ending 31st August.	Number of Schools.	Year ending 31st August.	Number of Schools.	Year ending 31st August.	Number of Schools.
1872	82	1878	2,682	1884	4,181	1890	4,676
1873	520	1879	3,139	1885	4,295	1891	4,747
1874	838	1880	3,433	1886	4,402	1892	4,831
1875	1,136	1881	3,692	1887	4,492	1893	4,904
1876	1,596	1882	3,868	1888	4,552	1894	5,081
1877	2,082	1883	4,049	1889	4,624	1895	5,260

Byelaw Standards.

The Lords of the Committee of Council on Education said in their report for 1881–2:—

> "In dealing with byelaws submitted to us after the Act of 1880 came into operation compulsion was insisted on for all children between 5 and 13; and while the standard for total exemption of children over 10 years of age was in no case allowed to be lower than the 4th, every endeavour was made to secure standards as high as the circumstances of each district appeared to warrant. In the byelaws which the Department made for those districts where the local authority had failed to do so, Standards V. and III. were prescribed respectively for total and partial exemption.
>
> "It will easily be understood that the byelaws now in force, made as they have been during a period extending over 10 years, and by a large number of different local authorities, vary considerably in their provisions: and it frequently happens that adjoining parishes in the same union, in all respects similar in their social and economical conditions, are under byelaws which enforce very different standards, and apply to children within different limits of age.
>
> "While 13, the maximum limit of age allowed by the Act of 1870, has been adopted in the large majority of cases, we find that out of 4,794 sets of byelaws, 237 cease to require attendance after 12 years, 13 after 11, and 39 after 10 years. Again, of 133 boroughs under school boards, 11 adopt Standard VI., 93 Standard V., and 29 Standard IV., for the total exemption of children over 10 years of age; while for partial exemption 6 adopt Standard V., 50 Standard IV., 44 Standard III., and 15 Standard II.
>
> "The most striking diversities of the byelaws are, however, found in a review of the unions. It is not uncommon to find three different sets of standards prevailing for parishes in the same union; and there are unions in which four, five, or six different sets exist."

The following tables show the standards of exemption in 1886, 1890, and 1895. The tables for 1886 and 1890 are taken from the Report of a Departmental Committee (consisting of Messrs. Tucker, Troup, and Llewellyn Smith) appointed to inquire into the conditions of School Attendance and Child Labour, presented to Parliament in July 1893.

The following TABLES show the DISTRIBUTION of the POPULATION of ENGLAND AND WALES under BYELAW STANDARDS in 1886.

Standards for Total Exemption.

——	Compulsion only between 5 and 10.		I.		II.		III.		IV.		V.		VI.		Totals.	
	No. of Places.	Population.	No. of Places.	Population.	No. of Places.	Population.	No. of Places.	Population.	No. of Places.	Population.	No. of Places.	Population.	No. of Places.	Population.	No. of Places.	Population.
London School Board -	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	1	3,834,254	1	3,834,354
Boroughs (excluding London) :—Boards and School Attendance Committees.	1	3,002	—	—	—	—	—	—	69	898,114	167	6,546,198	16	1,206,024	253	8,653,338
Parishes :—Boards, Urban Sanitary Districts, and Unions.	67	41,160	—	—	—	—	7	14,930	9,303	7,331,995	3,800	5,954,879	62	143,783	13,239	13,486,747
Totals - -	68	44,162	—	—	—	—	7	14,930	9,372	8,230,109	3,967	12,501,077	79	5,184,161	13,493	25,974,439
Per-centage -	·17						·05		31·68		48·12		19·95			

Standards for Partial Exemption.

——	No Standard.		I.		II.		III.		IV.		V.		VI.		Totals.	
	No. of Places.	Population.	No. of Places.	Population.	No. of Places.	Population.	No. of Places.	Population.	No. of Places.	Population.	No. of Places.	Population.	No. of Places.	Population.	No. of Places.	Population.
London School Board							1	3,834,354							1	3,834,354
Boroughs (excluding London) :—Boards and School Attendance Committees.	12	465,726			28	971,543	118	3,549,379	89	3,350,525	6	316,165			253	8,653,338
Parishes : — Boards, Urban Sanitary Districts, and Unions.	916	938,820	91	104,309	1,518	1,572,960	8,793	7,890,548	1,912	2,918,849	9	61,261			13,239	13,486,747
Totals -	928	1,404,546	91	104,309	1,546	2,544,503	8,912	15,274,281	2,001	6,269,374	15	377,426			13,493	25,974,439
Per-centage -	5·40		·40		9·79		58·80		24·13		1·41					

This TABLE shows the NUMBER of LOCAL AUTHORITIES who, in 1890, had adopted the DIFFERENT STANDARDS for TOTAL and PARTIAL EXEMPTION.

	Total Exemption.							Partial Exemption.						
	No Standard.	I.	II.	III.	IV.	V.	VI.	No Standard.	I.	II.	III.	IV.	V.	VI.
Parishes	40*	—	—	7	8,931	4,026	57	1,361†	26	1,246	8,374	2,033	15	6
Boroughs under School Boards‡	—	—	—	—	23	121	19	12	—	15	54	76	6	—
Boroughs under School Attendance Committees	—	—	—	—	53	71	1	5	—	11	83	26	—	—
Urban Sanitary Districts	—	—	—	—	21	48	3	2	—	18	40	12	—	—
Total	40	—	—	7	9,028	4,266	80	1,380	26	1,290	8,551	2,147	21	6
Per-centages					67·2	31·8		10·3	2	9·6	63·7	16·		

* Includes 31 parishes where there is compulsion between 5 and 10 only. † Includes 9 parishes where there is no standard for total exemption.
‡ London, though not a borough, is included under this head.

TABLE showing how the TOTAL POPULATION of ENGLAND and WALES was distributed in 1895.

—	Under Total Exemption Standards.						Total Population.	Under Partial Exemption Standards.							Total Population.
	III.	IV.	V.	VI.	VII.	0.*		I.	II.	III.	IV.	V.	VI.	0.*	
Population -	3,576	5,645,770	11,978,389	12,212,781	122,224	39,785	29,002,525	60,955	1,019,343	10,867,523	13,749,352	1,349,424	3,136	1,952,792	29,002,525
Per-centage of Population.	·01	19·46	41·30	38·66	·42	·13		·21	3·51	37·47	47·40	4·65	·01	6·73	

* In some districts there is no standard for total exemption, in others no standard for partial exemption. In a few cases included in these columns, attendance is only compulsory up to 10 years of age.

IV.—Number of Public Elementary Day Schools under Voluntary Management.*

(This does not include a certain number of Schools which are recognised for purposes of compulsory attendance, but are not inspected for the purpose of awarding any grants.)

Inspected during the Year ending 31st August	Church of England.	Wesleyan.	Roman Catholic.	British, Undenominational, &c.	Total.
1871	6,724	Included under British, &c. until 1878.	383	1,691	8,798†
1872	7,328		464	1,980	9,772†
1873	8,051		524	1,999	10,574†
1874	8,799		567	2,042	11,408†
1875	9,449		598	2,034	12,081
1876	10,046		623	2,008	12,677
1877	10,472		659	1,974	13,105
1878	10,910	572	693	1,436	13,611
1879	11,264	577	737	1,449	14,027
1880	11,416	569	758	1,438	14,181
1881	11,589	562	789	1,430	14,370
1882	11,620	567	812	1,422	14,421
1883	11,703	559	817	1,412	14,491
1884	11,773	557	828	1,422	14,580
1885	11,794	554	850	1,402	14,600
1886	11,797	554	882	1,387	14,620
1887	11,838	554	895	1,375	14,662
1888	11,825	553	909	1,372	14,659
1889	11,844	554	920	1,368	14,686
1890	11,884	551	939	1,369	14,743
1891	11,908	542	951	1,360	14,761
1892	11,883	526	954	1,321	14,684
1893	11,894	525	961	1,293	14,673
1894	11,906	509	977	1,236	14,628
1895	11,830	482	990	1,177	14,479

* The total number of day schools—voluntary and board—will be found at page 48. The total number of board schools is given on a separate table on page 16.

† A few schools inspected only for evening school grants are included in the figures for 1871–74.

V.—The Cost of Public Elementary Education.

(A.)—Aid from the Central Authorities.

(i.)—Education Department Grants, including Annual Grants, Building Grants (payments not completed until 1882*), Fee Grants (from 1891), Training College Grants, Pensions, Administration and Inspection, &c.

For Year ending 31st December	—	For Year ending 31st December	—
	£	Brought forward	£ 24,762,428
1871 - -	919,132	1884 - -	3,101,285
1872 - -	1,107,578	1885 - -	3,247,603
1873 - -	1,235,188	1886 - -	3,441,932
1874 - -	1,327,225	1887 - -	3,474,072
1875 - -	1,480,500	1888 - -	3,559,390
1876 - -	1,621,828	1889 - -	3,629,687
1877 - -	1,871,647	1890 - -	3,678,540
1878 - -	2,162,975	1891 - -	4,106,657
1879 - -	2,315,073	1892 - -	5,965,516
1880 - -	2,487,667	1893 - -	6,348,523
1881 - -	2,605,162	1894 - -	6,493,645
1882 - -	2,792,188	1895 - -	6,794,614
1883 - -	2,836,265		78,603,892
Carried forward	24,762,428		

* "The whole of the 3,348 applications for building grants made in 1870 have now been disposed of."—(Report of Committee of Council on Education, 1881-82.)

Note.—The grant paid to Evening Continuation Schools from 1893 to 1895 is deducted because the Evening Continuation Schools established under the New Code of 1893 have been largely non-elementary in character.

(ii.)—FEE GRANT (included in the preceding Table).

Year ending 31st August	Amount of Fee Grant paid by Education Department.	Scholars.		Number of Schools		
		Numbers Free.	Numbers paying Fees.	Entirely Free.	Receiving Fee Grant and charging Fees.	Not in receipt of Fee Grant.
	£					
1892* - - -	822,440	3,880,722	1,126,257	15,170	3,503	842
1893 - - -	2,050,140	4,236,867	889,506	15,914	3,531	132
1894 - - -	2,099,090	4,377,741	821,000	16,289	3,303	117
1895 - - -	2,151,469	4,519,159	780,310	16,493	3,132	114

* "The Elementary Education Act of 1891, under which the fee grant became payable to public elementary schools came into operation on the 1st September 1891. The inspection year to which our report relates began on the same 1st September 1891 and ended on the 31st August 1892. It follows that schools inspected in September 1891, the returns for which were made up to the 31st August previous, could receive no fee grant at all, and were quite unaffected by the Act of 1891. Similarly, schools inspected in October 1891 could only receive one month's fee grant, and were only for one month affected by the Free Education Act. Even the schools visited in August 1892, the latest included in our inspection returns, were only, at most, for 11 months under the Act. Moreover, in many cases, the fee grant was not accepted from the earliest moment. Many schools, due for inspection in the last months of the calendar year, waited till the beginning of another school year before conforming to the new conditions, preferring to continue charging fees till the close of their current school years. Other schools, again, chose the close of the harvest, or even the Christmas holidays, as their new point of departure. From what has been said, it will be understood that the statistics available for our present report are necessarily incomplete."—(Report of the Committee of Council on Education, 1892-93.)

(iii.)—GRANTS from the SCIENCE AND ART DEPARTMENT for DRAWING and MANUAL INSTRUCTION in ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS; DRAWING in EVENING SCHOOLS; and DRAWING and SCIENCE in TRAINING COLLEGES.

1871—1895.

Year.	Grants to Elementary Day Schools.		Grants for Drawing to Evening Schools.	Grants to Training Colleges.	
	Drawing.	Manual Instruction.		Drawing.	Science.*
	£	£	£	£	£
1871	8,157†	—	—	235	—
1872	9,964†	—	—	336	—
1873	11,227	—	—	436	—
1874	13,402	—	—	462	—
1875	15,628	—	—	343	—
1876	19,514	—	—	941	—
1877	24,689	—	—	1,014	—
1878	25,266	—	—	1,124	1,652
1879	30,067	—	—	925	2,639
1880	37,631	—	—	972	3,302
1881	27,543	—	—	923	3,308
1882	27,597	—	—	894	3,783
1883	24,660	—	—	980	4,355
1884	28,709	—	—	1,486	4,413
1885	31,078	—	—	1,575	4,971
1886	28,533	—	—	1,720	4,448
1887	31,263	—	18	1,872	4,429
1888	41,415	—	220	1,905	3,938
1889	48,539	—	399	1,417	4,150
1890	56,460	—	506	1,537	4,308
1891	70,995	584	722	1,733	4,451
1892	116,827	2,313	891	1,807	5,012§
1893	133,939	4,746	‡	2,002	6,631§
1894	139,264	7,679	‡	2,358	8,023§
1895	145,559	15,467	‡	2,157	5,482§
Totals -	1,147,926	30,789	2,756	31,104	79,295

* The Department has no separate returns for training colleges prior to 1878, when the first separate science examinations for training colleges were held. Nor has it any record distinguishing the payments in respect of science subjects to classes in Evening Continuation Schools.

† Including grants to Scotch schools; no separate return for these schools in 1871 and 1872.

‡ The grants paid in 1893–5 are not included (*see* footnote on page 23).

§ These amounts include payments to both Residential and Day Training Colleges. The decreased grant paid in 1895 was due to a change in the date of the examinations, which were held at the end of the half session, a smaller number of subjects being taken by each student.

GRANTS made by the EDUCATION DEPARTMENT in AID of RATES under 33 & 34 Vict. c. 75. s. 97* (included in Table A. (i.) above).

Year ending 31st December.		Year ending 31st December.	
	£		£
1874 - - }	545	Brought forward	18,560
1875 - - }		1886 - -	5,712
1876 - -	516	1887 - -	4,896
1877 - -	566	1888 - -	6,779
1878 - -	813	1889 - -	7,557
1879 - -	1,071	1890 - -	6,975
1880 - -	1,345	1891 - -	7,453
1881 - -	1,488	1892 - -	8,898
1882 - -	2,326	1893 - -	12,196
1883 - -	2,626	1894 - -	17,850
1884 - -	3,161	1895 - -	20,459
1885 - -	4,103		117,335
Carried forward	18,560		

* *i.e.*, where a rate of threepence in the pound on the rateable value of the district produces less than twenty pounds or less than seven shillings and sixpence per child in average attendance in the board schools, the Education Department, in addition to the annual parliamentary grant, pays a further sum to make up the said sum of twenty pounds or seven shillings and sixpence per child.

[The scale of these grants has been altered by the Elementary Education Act (1870) Amendment Act, 1897.]

(B.)—TOTAL SUMS PAID BY RATING AUTHORITIES and LIABILITIES of SCHOOL BOARDS in respect of OUTSTANDING LOANS.

For Year ending 29th September		For Year ending 29th September	
	£		£
1871 - -	71,184	Brought forward	25,799,578
1872 - -	162,491	1889 - -	2,666,264
1873 - -	251,906	1890 - -	2,968,096
1874 - -	373,859	1891 - -	3,331,473
1875 - -	588,845	1892 - -	3,462,356
1876 - -	868,418	1893 - -	3,619,167
1877 - -	1,108,316	1894 - -	3,732,342
1878 - -	1,328,275	1895 - -	3,987,790
1879 - -	1,486,250		
1880 - -	1,579,752		
1881 - -	1,772,263		49,567,066
1882 - -	1,837,566	Add the liabilities	
1883 - -	1,990,162	of school boards	
1884 - -	2,207,806	in respect of	24,376,418
1885 - -	2,354,006	outstanding	
1886 - -	2,545,492	loans - -	
1887 - -	2,641,554		
1888 - -	2,631,433	Total expenditure	
		of school boards	73,943,484
Carried forward	25,799,578	1871–95 -	

(C.)—EXPENDITURE on MAINTENANCE of ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS from VOLUNTARY SUBSCRIPTIONS and INCOME DERIVED from ENDOWMENTS for MAINTENANCE.

Year ending 31st August	Voluntary Subscriptions for Maintenance only.	Income from Endowments.		
		Total.	(*a*) Increase or (*b*) Decrease of income from Endowment compared in the Previous Year.	
			(*a*.)	(*b*.)
	£	£	£	£
1871 - - -	437,401	50,516	2,958	
1872 - - -	493,386	61,686	11,170	
1873 - - -	539,502	73,405	11,719	
1874 - - -	602,837	81,349	7,944	
1875 - - -	675,565	95,877	14,528	
1876 - - -	751,800	102,237	6,360	
1877 - - -	786,245	112,478	10,241	
1878 - - -	774,104	120,730	8,252	
1879 - - -	754,134	136,079	15,349	
1880 - - -	739,155	143,000	6,921	
1881 - - -	728,936	148,034	5,034	
1882 - - -	724,846	147,984		50
1883 - - -	717,089	154,162	6,178	
1884 - - -	734,128	157,124	2,962	
1885 - - -	756,828	158,086	962	
1886 - - -	742,597	156,123		1,963
1887 - - -	743,737	162,540	6,417	
1888 - - -	745,916	165,506	2,966	
1889 - - -	750,860	172,654	7,148	
1890 - - -	758,670	164,062		8,592
1891 - - -	779,559	163,629		433
1892 - - -	798,777	162,122		1,507
1893 - - -	808,949	159,774		2,348
1894 - - -	808,553	157,232		2,542
1895 - - -	836,428	154,242		2,990
	17,990,002	3,360,631	127,109	
			20,425	20,425
			106,684*	

* Net increase. The capital producing this increase would probably amount to about 3,500,000*l*.

(D.)—School Fees paid by Scholars in Public Elementary Schools.

For Year ending 31st August		For Year ending 31st August	
	£		£
1871 - -	539,548	Brought forward	14,582,345
1872 - -	599,284	1884 - -	1,734,115
1873 - -	688,296	1885 - -	1,791,084
1874 - -	814,283	1886 - -	1,812,917
1875 - -	933,666	1887 - -	1,833,985
1876 - -	1,034,408	1888 - -	1,861,705
1877 - -	1,138,270	1889 - -	1,903,996
1878 - -	1,275,073	1890 - -	1,940,546
1879 - -	1,372,365	1891 - -	1,969,370
1880 - -	1,431,828	1892 - -	1,285,826
1881 - -	1,509,653	1893 - -	357,030
1882 - -	1,585,928	1894 - -	320,219
1883 - -	1,659,743	1895 - -	306,853
Carried forward	14,582,345		31,699,991

The Average School Fees per Child in Average Attendance.

	Voluntary Schools.	Board Schools.
	s. d.	*s. d.*
1871 - - - - - -	8 $4\frac{3}{4}$	—
1872 - - - - - -	8 $9\frac{1}{4}$	7 $5\frac{1}{2}$
1873 - - - - - -	9 $5\frac{1}{2}$	8 $0\frac{3}{4}$
1874 - - - - - -	10 $5\frac{3}{4}$	8 4
1875 - - - - - -	10 $1\frac{3}{4}$	8 $8\frac{1}{2}$
1876 - - - - - -	10 $6\frac{1}{2}$	9 $1\frac{1}{2}$
1877 - - - - - -	10 $8\frac{1}{4}$	9 2
1878 - - - - - -	10 $8\frac{3}{4}$	9 0
1879 - - - - - -	10 10	9 $3\frac{1}{4}$
1880 - - - - - -	10 $9\frac{3}{4}$	9 0
1881 - - - - - -	11 $0\frac{1}{4}$	9 $3\frac{1}{4}$
1882 - - - - - -	11 0	9 4
1883 - - - - - -	11 1	9 $5\frac{1}{2}$
1884 - - - - - -	11 2	9 $5\frac{3}{4}$
1885 - - - - - -	11 $2\frac{3}{4}$	9 4
1886 - - - - - -	11 $2\frac{1}{4}$	9 $1\frac{1}{4}$
1887 - - - - - -	11 $1\frac{3}{4}$	9 $0\frac{3}{4}$
1888 - - - - - -	11 $0\frac{1}{4}$	8 $11\frac{1}{4}$
1889 - - - - - -	11 $1\frac{1}{2}$	8 $11\frac{3}{4}$
1890 - - - - - -	11 $2\frac{1}{4}$	9 1
1891 - - - - - -	11 $3\frac{1}{2}$	9 $1\frac{1}{4}$
1892 - - - - - -	7 $3\frac{1}{2}$	5 6
1893 - - - - - -	2 $4\frac{1}{2}$	0 $8\frac{1}{2}$
1894 - - - - - -	2 $0\frac{1}{4}$	0 7
1895 - - - - - -	1 $11\frac{1}{4}$	0 $5\frac{3}{4}$

Note.—The decrease in the average school fees in 1892 and thereafter is owing to the operation of the Elementary Education Act, 1891, under which a fee grant of ten shillings is payable to schools which comply with the conditions of the Act.

(E.)—AMOUNTS contributed towards the MAINTENANCE* of TRAINING COLLEGES for TEACHERS in ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS.

Year.	Grants from the State (included in the Tables A. (i.) and (iii.) above).	Students' Fees (including Sums paid for Books).	Voluntary Subscriptions, Endowments, &c.	Total.
	£	£	£	£
1871 - - -	65,396	6,873	21,345	93,614
1872 - - -	83,792	8,408	25,942	188,142
1873 - - -	93,804	11,301	29,743	134,848
1874 - - -	97,960	11,961	25,526	135,447
1875 - - -	97,488	14,454	27,945	139,887
1876 - - -	102,286	15,484	24,720	142,490
1877 - - -	106,016	16,639	21,841	144,496
1878 - - -	104,270	17,542	23,556	145,368
1879 - - -	108,555	19,924	23,337	151,816
1880 - - -	109,299	20,964	23,457	153,720
1881 - - -	112,908	21,276	20,309	154,493
1882 - - -	114,350	21,960	20,966	157,276
1883 - - -	116,484	24,344	20,095	160,923
1884 - - -	118,839	25,174	22,273	166,286
1885 - - -	120,970	27,495	19,045	167,510
1886 - - -	121,822	27,465	18,360	167,647
1887 - - -	122,740	28,057	17,708	168,505
1888 - - -	123,354	28,832	20,981	173,167
1889 - - -	124,039	28,611	18,234	170,884
1890 - - -	124,729	28,486	22,382	175,597
1891 - - -	131,900	31,306	18,925	182,131
1892 - - -	142,573	34,579	19,443	196,595
1893 - - -	151,519	36,231	21,289	209,039
1894 - - -	159,992	40,311	23,768	224,071
1895† - - -	127,011	36,047	10,323	173,381
Total - -	2,882,096	583,724	541,513	4,007,333

* The amounts contributed towards the provision of training colleges are not included on account of the difficulty of obtaining complete information. The National Society has, since 1870, spent 106,810*l.* on *building* as distinct from *maintenance*.

† The amounts given for 1895 are for the six months ended 30th June only in the case of Residential Training Colleges.

(F.)—SUMMARY TABLE showing an APPROXIMATE ESTIMATE of the TOTAL AMOUNT SPENT on PUBLIC ELEMENTARY EDUCATION in ENGLAND AND WALES (including the MAINTENANCE of TRAINING COLLEGES for TEACHERS in ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS) by the CENTRAL AUTHORITIES, by the SCHOOL BOARDS, by VOLUNTARY SUBSCRIBERS, from ENDOWMENTS, and by PARENTS and POOR LAW GUARDIANS for SCHOLARS during the Years 1871–95.

	£	£
1. The Central Authorities.		
Education Department grants (excluding Evening Continuation School grants since 1893) -	78,603,892	
Science and Art Department grants for drawing and manual instruction in elementary schools, 1871–95, for drawing in evening schools, 1871–93, for drawing in training colleges, 1871–95, and for teaching of Science in training colleges, 1878–95 - - - -	1,291,870	
		79,895,762
2. The School Boards.		
Received from Rating Authorities - -	49,567,066	
Liabilities on loans§ - - - -	24,376,418	
		73,943,484
3. Voluntary Subscriptions† and Income from Endowments.		
Voluntary subscriptions and income from endowments for the maintenance of day and evening schools and training colleges - - -	21,892,146	
Voluntary subscriptions for the provision (*i.e.*, for the building and structural alteration of schools) estimated at - - - -	11,030,027	
(Amount spent on training colleges, otherwise than for their maintenance, not included).		
		32,922,173
4. Fees paid by parents and poor law guardians for scholars at public elementary schools - -	31,699,991	
Fees paid by or for students at training colleges, including the sums paid by students for books -	583,724	
		32,283,715
Total - - - -		219,045,134

§ This amount is up to September 29, 1895, by which date, however, some part of the loans would not have been actually spent. It should also be noticed that some small portion of the total paid by the rating authorities is counted twice over, viz., when one school board has contributed to another. School boards have the same power of contributing money towards industrial schools as is given to a prison authority by section 12 of "The Industrial Schools Act, 1866." They may also, with the consent of the Education Department, establish, build, and maintain a certified industrial school within the meaning of the Industrial Schools Act, 1866. Part of the expenditure of the boards has been incurred for these purposes, and part of the loans have been raised for building industrial schools. Thus out of the 472,320*l.* outstanding loan for Liverpool on the 29th September 1896, 37,205*l.* was in respect of industrial schools. School boards also have power to build an office, and may borrow money for that purpose. These items are all included in the rates and loans of school boards. The expenditure of the school boards has also included large outlay on evening continuation schools. The London School Board in their report for 1895–96 give a table showing the amounts borrowed and repaid from the 29th November 1870 to the 25th March 1896, which shows :—

	£
Amount borrowed on account of schools -	10,528,802
" " " industrial schools -	72,403
" " " offices of the Board	237,956
Total borrowed - - -	10,839,161
Amounts repaid - - -	1,961,717
Remaining unpaid - -	8,877,444

NOTE.—The amount which has been spent on the provision (as distinguished from the maintenance) of voluntary schools (excluding training colleges) since 1870 may be stated as follows :—

	£
Church of England - - - - - -	7,575,402
Wesleyan - - - - - - -	604,625
Roman Catholic (about) - - - - -	1,850,000
British, Undenominational and other schools (about) - -	1,000,000

The return for the Church of England schools is quoted from the National Society's Report 1896. The total amount, however, spent on the provision of Church of England schools during the period under review would largely exceed the sum here named, if account were taken of the value of sites and of the cost of many schools which have been built by owners of property on their estates. The return for the Wesleyan schools is taken from an interesting memorandum prepared by the Rev. Dr. Waller, Secretary of the Wesleyan Education Committee. The latter amount, however, does not include 110,886*l.* expended since 1870 on Wesleyan schools which have been closed or transferred since that date. The return for the Roman Catholic schools is based on an estimate kindly furnished for this memorandum by His Eminence Cardinal Vaughan. The estimate for British and other schools is partly based on a calculation which Mr. Alfred Bourne, Secretary of the British and Foreign School Society, has been so good as to make for us. Mr. Bourne kindly made extensive inquiries for the purpose of this memorandum, but found himself unable to furnish a precise statement of the amount which had been expended by the various schools included in the fourth category named above.

Returns were received by Mr. Bourne from 209 British schools showing an expenditure of 148,175*l.* As the Voluntary schools in the category of British, Undenominational and other schools at the present time number 1,177, it seems reasonable to estimate the expenditure on provision and structural alterations between 1870–95 in round figures at 1,000,000*l.*

It should be added that, while the other figures in the general tables are confined to expenditure between 1870 and 1895, these returns of the outlay on voluntary school provision include some expenditure made in the year 1896. On the other hand (as in the case of the Wesleyan return) the sums named above omit some of the expenditure actually made between 1870 and December 31, 1895.

(G.)—Table showing the Proportion of the Estimated Cost of Public Elementary Education (including the Maintenance of Training Colleges) in England and Wales, which fell (*a*) on the Central Funds of the State, (*b*) on the Localities, including Voluntary Subscribers, Endowments, and Parents or Poor Law Guardians for Scholars in the Years 1870–95.

Expenditure on Public Elementary Education (England and Wales), 1871–95.

Year.	*a.* Paid from Rates.	*b.* Voluntary Subscriptions and Income from Endowments (for Maintenance of Elementary Schools and Training Colleges).	*c.* Total of Columns (*a*) and (*b*).	*d.* Fees of Scholars in Elementary Schools and Students in Training Colleges.	*e.* Total of Columns (*a*), (*b*), and (*d*).	*f.* School Board Loans (viz., Amount of Increase on preceding Year for Liabilities on account of Loans).	*g.* Estimated Average Annual Amount of Subscriptions for Buildings of Voluntary Schools.*	*h.* Grand Total of Columns (*a*), (*b*), (*d*), (*f*), and (*g*).	*i.* State Expenditure (Education Department and Science and Art Department.)	Year.	Proportion of Total Expenditure which fell (*a*) on the Central Funds of the State, (*b*) on other Sources of Revenue.	
											State.	Other Sources of Income.
	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£			
1871	71,184	509,262	580,446	546,421	1,126,867	600	441,201	1,568,668	927,524	1871	37·16	62·84
1872	162,491	581,014	743,505	607,692	1,351,197	63,487	441,201	1,855,885	1,117,878			
1873	251,906	642,650	894,556	699,597	1,594,153	861,458	441,201	2,896,812	1,246,851			
1874	373,859	709,712	1,083,571	826,244	1,909,815	1,539,111	441,201	3,890,127	1,341,639			
1875	588,845	799,387	1,388,232	948,120	2,336,352	1,435,989	441,201	4,213,542	1,496,471			
1876	868,418	878,757	1,747,175	1,049,892	2,797,067	1,462,956	441,201	4,701,224	1,642,283	1876	25·89	74·11
1877	1,108,316	920,564	2,028,880	1,154,909	3,183,789	1,821,330	441,201	5,446,320	1,897,350			
1878	1,328,275	918,390	2,246,665	1,292,615	3,539,280	1,500,163	441,201	5,480,644	2,191,017			
1879	1,486,250	913,550	2,399,800	1,392,289	3,792,089	1,083,636	441,201	5,316,926	2,348,704			
1880	1,579,752	905,612	2,485,364	1,452,792	3,938,156	1,090,258	441,201	5,469,615	2,529,572			
1881	1,772,203	867,279	2,639,542	1,530,929	4,200,471	982,154	441,201	5,623,826	2,630,936	1881	31·93	68·07
1882	1,837,566	893,796	2,731,362	1,607,888	4,339,250	975,245	441,201	5,755,696	2,824,462			
1883	1,990,162	891,346	2,881,508	1,684,087	4,565,595	850,051	441,201	5,856,847	2,806,200			
1884	2,207,806	913,525	3,121,331	1,759,289	4,880,620	1,171,288	441,201	6,493,109	3,135,843			
1885	2,354,006	933,959	3,287,965	1,818,579	5,106,544	1,198,364	441,201	6,746,109	3,285,227			
1886	2,545,492	917,080	3,462,572	1,840,382	5,302,954	691,901	441,201	6,435,756	3,476,633	1886	35·08	64·92
1887	2,641,554	923,985	3,565,539	1,862,042	5,427,581	430,462	441,201	6,299,244	3,511,654			
1888	2,631,433	932,403	3,563,836	1,890,537	5,454,373	401,114	441,201	6,296,688	3,606,868			
1889	2,666,264	941,748	3,608,012	1,932,607	5,540,619	574,828	441,201	6,556,648	3,684,192			
1890	2,968,086	945,114	3,913,210	1,969,032	5,882,242	377,307	441,201	6,700,810	3,741,351			
1891	3,331,473	962,113	4,293,586	2,000,676	6,294,262	574,064	441,201	7,309,527	4,185,142	1891	36·41	63·59
1892	3,462,356	980,342	4,442,698	1,320,405	5,763,103	940,076	441,201	7,153,380	6,092,366	1892	46·00	54·00
1893	3,619,167	990,012	4,609,179	393,261	5 002,440	914,539	441,201	6,358,180	6,405,841	1893	50·54	49·46
1894	3,732,542	989,553	4,721,895	360,530	5,082,425	1,557,885	441,201	7,081,511	6,650,960	1894	48·44	51·56
1895	3,987,790	1,000,993	4,988,783	342,900	5,331,683	1,869,362	441,203	7,642,246	6,963,270	1895	47·68	52·32
	49,567,066	21,892,146	71,459,212	32,283,715	103,742,927	24,376,418	11,030,027	139,149,372	79,895,762			

* The amount spent on voluntary school buildings since 1870 is approximately estimated at 11,030,027*l*. This gives an average of 441,201*l*. per annum over the whole period. The sums expended on the building of training colleges are not included, as the information to hand is not sufficiently complete to permit an estimate to be made.

VI.—The Codes and the Conditions of the Award of Grants.

At the time of the passing of the Elementary Education Act, 1870, the Revised Code was in force. By this Code grants were made to assist voluntary local exertion in establishing and maintaining elementary schools and in maintaining normal schools. All schools had to be in connexion with some recognised religious denomination, and, besides teaching secular instruction, to have the Scriptures read therein daily.

The annual grant to all day schools, which had met not less than 400 times in the course of the year, was 4*s.* per scholar in average attendance; and for every scholar who had attended over 200 times (100 times in the case of half-timers) if over six years of age, a grant of 8*s.* could be claimed subject to examination,—2*s.* 8*d.* for passing in reading, 2*s.* 8*d.* for passing in writing, and 2*s.* 8*d.* for passing in arithmetic,—or, if under six years of age and present at the inspection, a grant of 6*s.* 6*d.* could be claimed. An extra grant of not more than 8*l.* was given to every school, if, *inter alia*, an examination in a specific subject or subjects was passed by at least one-fifth of the children over six. Grants of from 5*l.* to 10*l.* were also paid for certain male pupil-teachers entering a normal school, and further grants of from 5*l.* to 8*l.* on passing a good examination at the end of their first year's residence. In evening schools, which had met not less than 40 times in the course of the year, 2*s.* 6*d.* was paid on the average attendance; and for each scholar over 12 years of age who had attended more than 24 meetings, 1*s.* 8*d.* was paid for passing in reading, 1*s.* 8*d.* for passing in writing, and 1*s.* 8*d.* for passing in arithmetic.

The condition of all grants was that the girls should be taught plain needlework.

The grant was subject to reduction by its excess above—

1. The amount of school fees and subscriptions; or
2. The rate of 15*s.* per scholar in average attendance. Also by the amount of any annual endowment, when together with the grant it exceeded the rate of 15*s.* per scholar in average attendance.

The Elementary Education Act, 1870, came into force in August of that year, and rendered void many of the above conditions. The Act declared that every elementary school, conducted in accordance with the regulations contained in section 7 of that Act, should be a public elementary school; that no Parliamentary grant should be paid to any other than public elementary schools (section 96); that building grants were to be discontinued (section 96); that a school need no

longer be connected with a religious denomination, nor religious instruction be given therein (section 97). The grant paid was not to exceed the income of the school derived from voluntary contributions, from school fees, and from any sources other than the Parliamentary grant (section 97). Extra grants were also to be paid to those school boards where a rate of 3*d.* in the £ on the rateable value of the district "produced less than 20*l.* "or less than 7*s.* 6*d.* per child of the number of children in "average attendance at the public elementary schools provided "by such school board."

The conditions as to the amount of grants under the Revised Code continued in force up to the 31st March 1871, when the "New Code" became law. This "New Code" determined the distribution of the Parliamentary grants until the 31st March 1883, but its various Articles were modified as time went on, and the Code of each year was distinguished by the date of the year in which it appeared.

The earnings of grants were now conditional on the following conditions:—

The day school must have met 400 times in the year, and every scholar must have made 250 attendances therein, or, if a half-timer, 150 attendances. An attendance was for two hours, which was reduced in 1875, in the case of children under seven years of age, to 1½ hours. Attendances could not be reckoned for children under four, which was altered in 1872 to under three or over 18 years of age.

The evening school must have met 80 times (reduced first to 60, and then to 45 times), and every scholar must have made 50 attendances (subsequently reduced to 40 hours). An attendance was 1½ hours (reduced afterwards to 1 hour), and the ages of the scholars was at first from 12 to 18, and from the year 1876, 12 to 21.

Needlework and cutting-out were to be taught to all girls, but this condition was in 1874 confined to girls in a day school. Attendances of boys at drill (*i.e.*, military drill, as it was subsequently called) under a competent instructor of not more than 40 hours a year could be counted as school attendance, but this was in 1872 confined to day schools. And, from 1875, attendances of girls at lessons in practical cookery were also allowed to count as attendances at school to the extent of 40 hours a year.

The grant was subject to reduction if it exceeded—

1. "The amount of school fees and subscriptions for edu- "cational purposes, including payments for such purposes "made by a school board," which became, in 1872, "The "income of the school from fees, rates, and subscriptions."
2. "The rate of 15*s.* per scholar according to the average "number in attendance"; but this was cancelled in 1875.
3. "One half the expenditure on the annual maintenance of "the school." (This was added in 1872.)

In 1877—in consequence of the passing of the Elementary Education Act, 1876,—instead of the above conditions, the grant was subject to reduction—

If it exceeded 17*s.* 6*d.* per scholar in average attendance, unless the income of the school "derived from voluntary "contributions, rates, school fees, endowment, and any "source whatever other than the Parliamentary grant," exceeded 17*s.* 6*d.* In such case the grant might equal the income. Thus, in order to receive a grant of more than 17*s.* 6*d.* per scholar in average attendance, the managers of a school had to produce local income, penny for penny, to meet the grant claimed. Up to the limit of 17*s.* 6*d.* per child, the requirement as to local income was suspended.

[NOTE.—The 17*s.* 6*d.* limit was repealed in respect of day schools by the Voluntary Schools Act, 1897.]

The following TABLE shows the GRANTS made to

Description of Grant.	Amount. As appearing in the New Code, 1871.	Alterations made		
Average attendance, per scholar.	6*s*. - -	1872. Reduced by 1*s*. per scholar unless vocal music formed part of ordinary course of instruction.	1874. 5*s*. - - - 1*s*. if singing forms part of ordinary course of instruction.	1875. 4*s*. - - - 1*s*. if singing forms part of ordinary course of instruction. 1*s*. if the inspector reports that the discipline and organisation are satisfactory.
On examination of scholars over seven.	4*s*. for passing in reading. 4*s*. for passing in writing. 4*s*. for passing in arithmetic.	1875. 3*s*. for passing in reading. 3*s*. for passing in writing. 3*s*. for passing in arithmetic.	1875. No grant after 31st March 1878, if scholar passes in only one of these three subjects.	1876. 4*s*. for reading, 4*s*. for writing, 4*s*. for arithmetic, in an infant school or department.
On presentation of infants between four and seven years of age.	8*s*. - - or 10*s*. if infants are taught as a separate department.	1872. *Added.*—By a certificated teacher of their own.	1880. The lower rate only is paid if children over nine years of age are retained in the infant school.	
Specific subjects, examination of scholars in Standards IV.-VI.	3*s*. per subject - Not more than two subjects.	1873. The grant for specific subjects not paid if less than 75 per cent. of passes in reading, writing, and arithmetic has been obtained.	1875. 4*s*. per subject. Scholars who have passed Standard VI. may take three subjects.	1876. Not subject to reduction when grant is more than half the expenditure.
Class subjects -	Nil - -	1875. 4*s*. per scholar in average attendance, above seven years of age, if the classes of Standards II.-VI. or specific subjects pass in two subjects, or 2*s*. only if less than 20 per cent. of children are in Standards IV. and upwards in elementary subjects.	1876. —if less than 10 per cent.	1878. 2*s*. for one subject, or 4*s*. for two subjects, or 1*s*. for one subject, or 2*s*. for two subjects —if less than 10 per cent., &c.
Small places -	Nil - -	1875. 10*l*. if population within two miles, by road, of the school is less than 300, or 15*l*. if less than 200, and there is no other public elementary school available within three miles.	1877. 10*l*. if population (of school district, or within two miles measured by the nearest road from the school) is under 300, or 15*l*. if under 200, and there is no other public elementary school available. Not subject to 17*s*. 6*d*. limit of grant.	
Pupil-teachers -	Nil - -	1875. 2*l*. (or 3*l*.) for each pupil-teacher who passes a fair (or good) examination.	1876. Limited to number of pupil-teachers required by the Code.	
Payment of children's school fees.	Nil - -	1878. Payment of fees of children holding honour certificates (Section 18 of the Act of 1876).		1879. Not subject to limitation on account of smallness of school income.

Day Schools under the Codes, 1871–1881.

between 1871-1881.			Amount. As appearing in the New Code, 1881.
1879. After 30th April 1*s.* of the 4*s.* on the infant girls was conditional on their passing in needlework.			4*s.* (1*s.* per head for infant girls is conditional on their passing a satisfactory examination in needlework.) 1*s.* if singing forms part of the ordinary course of instruction. 1*s.* if the inspector reports that the discipline and organisation are satisfactory.
			3*s.* for each pass in reading, writing, and arithmetic, or 4*s.* for each pass in an infant school or department. No grant is paid for any scholar who passes in one only of these subjects.
			8*s.* if infants are taught as a class of a school, or 10*s.* if taught as a separate department by a certificated teacher of their own, and if children over 9 years of age are not kept in the infant school.
1876. After 31st March, 1877, every girl presented must take domestic economy.	1879. After August, 1880, every girl presented must take both branches of domestic economy, but 2*s.* will be paid for a pass in either branch.	1880. Not paid if scholar passes in one only of the three elementary subjects.	4*s.* per subject. Not more than two subjects; scholars who have passed Standard VI. may take three. No grant if scholar passes in only one of the three elementary subjects. No grant paid unless 75 per cent. of the passes in the standard examination are obtained. Every girl presented must take both branches of domestic economy, but 2*s.* is paid for a pass in either. Not subject to reduction on account of smallness of school income.
1879.	1880. —in classes above Standard I. pass		2*s.* for one subject, or 4*s.* for two subjects if classes above Standard I. pass examination,
—if less than 15 per cent.	—if less than 20 per cent.		or 1*s.* or 2*s.* } if 20 per cent. of the children are not presented in elementary subjects in Standard IV. and upwards.
			10*l.* (or 15*l.*) if population of school district or within two miles, &c., is less than 300 (or 200), and there is no other public elementary school available. Not subject to reduction on account of smallness of school income.
			2*l.* (or 3*l.*) in respect of each pupil-teacher required by the Code who passes fairly (or well) the required conditions.
			Payment of fees of children who hold honour certificates. Not subject to reduction on account of smallness of school income.

Grants falling due between the 30th April 1883 and the 31st July 1890 were made according to the New Code of 1882, or according to that Code as modified by later Codes. Grants falling due on and after the 31st August 1890 were made according to the New Code of 1890, or according to the modifications introduced by subsequent Codes—now called the Day School Code. The conditions in both these Codes as to needlework in a girls' school, as to the length and number of attendances, and as to the limitations of the amount of grants, are nearly the same as those in the Code of 1881.

Evening schools which had met over 60 times in the course of the year were paid 6*s.* on their average attendance, while the 4*s.* grant was retained for the schools meeting between 45–60 times. The minimum age was raised from 12 to 14, but the attendances of scholars under 14 years of age were recognised provided the scholars were legally exempt from the obligation to attend school, or—as a future modification provided—had been presented for examination in the three elementary subjects in Standard V. or a higher Standard. In 1893 the higher limit of age was removed, and the attendances of scholars of over 21 years of age were recognised, and such scholars were eligible for a grant.

In day schools the 1½ hours for an attendance were allowed for all scholars in the infant schools and classes. In 1884 no attendances were recognised for a scholar who had already passed in the three elementary subjects in Standard VII. "unless the "Inspector had previously allowed such scholar to be re-"examined in that standard," which proviso was cancelled in 1891, and the words "and is upwards of 14 years of age" were inserted in their place. In 1886 the half-time attendance was reduced from 2 hours to 1 hour and 20 minutes, so that an attendance of 2 hours (and no attendance of less than this time was recognised) counted as an attendance and a half.

In 1890 the following subjects (whether taught in the school premises or not, provided that the Inspector approved of the provision for the instruction) were allowed to count for school attendances in day schools:—

Drawing.
Manual instruction.
Science.
Suitable physical exercises ("*e.g.*, swimming, gymnastics, Swedish drill, &c.," Code of 1894).
For boys, cottage gardening was added in 1895.
There were added for girls, laundry work (1890), dairy work and housewifery (1893), and domestic economy (1896).
"Special instruction for deaf and blind children" was added in 1893.
And visits to museums and art galleries (Code of 1895), and to national and historical buildings (Code of 1896), were also allowed to count to the extent of 20 attendances in a year.

In 1890 drawing became an obligatory subject for boys in schools for older scholars, and an optional subject for boys in infant schools and classes. After 31st August 1893 one class subject was made obligatory in all schools for older scholars, and after 31st August 1895 it was required that Standards I.—III. should be taught object lessons and one suitable occupation.

By the Code of 1896 suitable occupations in Standard I.–III. were placed in the category of optional subjects.

The following summary of grants, &c., to day schools under the Codes of 1871 and 1896 will show how great have been the alterations during the last 25 years.

Under the Code of 1871 the grants were 6*s.* per scholar in average attendance; 8*s.* or 10*s.* for each scholar above 4 and under 7 years of age who had made 250 attendances of 2 hours each; 4*s.* for each scholar over 7 years of age, who had made the same number of attendances, for each pass in reading, writing, and arithmetic; and 3*s.* for each scholar in Standards IV.–VI. for each of one or two passes in specific subjects.

Attendances at drill were allowed to count as school attendances.

Under the Code of 1896 most of the grants are on the average attendance and no scholar's grant is dependent on his having attended school at least 250 times. In infant schools and classes there is a fixed grant of 7*s.* or 9*s.*; a variable grant of 2*s.*, 4*s.*, or 6*s.*; a needlework, or needlework and drawing, grant of 1*s.*; and a singing grant of 6*d.* or 1*s.*; all paid on the average attendance. In schools for older scholars there is a principal grant of 12*s.* 6*d.* or 14*s.*; a grant for discipline and organisation of 1*s.* or 1*s.* 6*d.*; a needlework grant (for girls) of 1*s.*; a singing grant of 6*d.* or 1*s.*; and a grant for class subjects of 1*s.* or 2*s.* for the first subject, and of 1*s.* or 2*s.* for the second. These grants are all paid on the average attendance. In addition there is the grant for specific subjects of 2*s.* or 3*s.* for each scholar in Standards V.–VII. who is presented; or a cookery grant of 4*s.*, a laundry work grant of 2*s.*, and a dairy work grant of 4*s.* for each girl in Standards IV.–VII., and a cottage gardening grant of 2*s.* or 4*s.* for each boy in the same standards, providing they are properly taught the subjects and prefer these grants to those for specific subjects. There are also grants for pupil-teachers and to schools for small populations.

Intervals for recreation are allowed as part of the attendances of all scholars. Certain subjects need not be taught in the school premises (*see* above) and visits to national and historical buildings, art galleries, &c. are also counted as attendances at school. Allowance is also made for attendances lost on account of local epidemic. The attendance of scholars in an infant school or class need not exceed 1½ hours.

The inspector's annual visit can be replaced by two visits usually without notice.

The following TABLE shows the GRANTS made to SCHOOLS for OLDER SCHOLARS in DAY SCHOOLS under the CODES 1882–1896.

[The first six grants are paid on the average attendance; the remaining five on the individual scholars.]

Description of Grant.	Amount as appearing in the New Code, 1882.	Alterations made between 1882–1896.			Amount as appearing in the Day School Code, 1896.
Fixed Grant -	4*s.* 6*d.*	1890. Principal Grant of 12*s.* 6*d.* or 14*s.* Department decide which on Inspector's report. Recitation must be taught if 14*s.* is claimed.			Principal Grant. Of 12*s.* 6*d.* or 14*s.* The Department decide which on Inspector's report. Recitation must be taught if 14*s.* is claimed.
Merit Grant -	1*s.* for a fair school; or 2*s.* for a good school; or 3*s.* for an excellent school.	1890. 1*s.* or 1*s.* 6*d.* grant for Discipline and Organisation. The Department decide which on Inspector's report.	1894. After the 31st Aug. 1895 the 1*s.* 6*d.* will not be paid unless provision is made for instruction in Swedish or other drill, or suitable exercises;	1896. —but children employed in labour and attending school half-time, or for whom such instruction is unsuitable, are exempted.	Discipline and Organisation Grant. Of 1*s.* or 1*s.* 6*d.* The Department decide which on Inspector's report, but the higher grant will not be paid unless instruction is given in Swedish or other drill, or suitable physical exercises to all children not exempted.
Needlework -	1*s.* for girls only.				Needlework Grant. 1*s.* on average attendance of girls only.
Singing - -	1*s.* by note, or 6*d.* by ear.				Singing Grant. 1*s.* if taught by note, or 6*d.* if taught by ear.
Examination in the elementary subjects.	1*d.* for every unit of per-centage of passes.	1890. This grant was abolished.			Nil.
Examination in the Class Subjects.	1*s.* if examination is fair, or 2*s.* if examination is good (two class subjects only).	1885. Not more than three class subjects to be taken.	1887. Not more than two class subjects to be taken.	1890. 1*s.* or 2*s.* for first class subject. 1*s.* or 2*s.* for second „ „ The Department decide which on Inspector's report.	Grant for Class Subjects. 1*s.* or 2*s.* for a first class subject; and 1*s.* or 2*s.* for a second „ „ The Department decide which on Inspector's report.

Examination in Specific Subjects (for scholars in Standards V.-VII.).	**4s. for each scholar passing in any subject (not more than two to be taken).**	**1890 to 1892.** The school must have in the previous year received the 14s. principal grant, unless it was not earned in consequence of Recitation not having been taught.		**1892.** Where grant falls due on and after 31st August 1892, 2s. or 3s. for each scholar presented. The Department shall decide which, if either, of these sums shall be paid, after considering the Inspector's report.		**Grant on Examination in Specific Subjects.** 2s. or 3s. for each scholar presented. The Department decids which, if either, of these sums shall be paid, after considering Inspector's report. Scholars must be in Standards V.-VII., and can only take two specific subjects.
		1884.	**1885.**	**1890.**	**1893.**	**Cookery Grant.**
Cookery . .	4s. for any girl over 12 who has attended 40 hours at a Cookery class.	For any girl presented in the 4th or higher Standard in elementary subjects.	20 hours must have been spent in cooking with her own hands. No grant if girl is presented in more than one specific subject.	—in one subject if grant is claimed also for Laundry Work;	—or for Dairy Work.	4s. for any girl in Standards IV. and upwards who has attended 40 hours at a cookery class (20 hours cooking with her own hands), and is presented in not more than one specific subject, or, if a grant is claimed for Laundry Work or Dairy Work, in not one.
		1890.		**1893.**		**Laundry Work Grant.**
Laundry Work .	Nil . .	2s. for each girl in Standards IV. and upwards who has attended 20 hours at a Laundry class. No grant if girl is presented in more than one specific subject, or who is presented in one if grant is also claimed for Cookery;		—or Dairy Work.		2s., subject to the same conditions as the Cookery Grant, except that 20 hours' attendance only is required.
		1893.				**Dairy Work Grant.**
Dairy Work .	Nil . .	4s. for each girl in Standard IV. and upwards who has attended not less than 20 lessons of two hours each at a Dairy Work class. No grant if girl is presented in more than one specific subject, or who is presented in one if grant is also claimed for Cookery or Laundry Work.				4s., subject to the same conditions as the Cookery Grant, except that 20 lessons, of at least two hours each, is required.
		1895.				**Cottage Gardening Grant.**
Cottage Gardening	Nil .	2s. (or 4s.) for any boy in Standards IV. or higher who has attended 20 (or 40) hours at a Gardening class. But boy can only be presented in one specific subject.				2s. (or 4s.) for any boy who has attended 20 (or 40) times at a Gardening class. Boy must be in Standards IV. or upwards, and not be presented in more than one specific subject.

The following TABLE shows the GRANTS made to INFANT SCHOOLS and CLASSES in DAY SCHOOLS under the CODES 1882–1896.

[All amounts are on the average attendance.]

Description of Grant.	Amount as appearing in the New Code, 1882.	Alterations made between 1882–1896.	Amount as appearing in the Day School Code, 1893.
Fixed Grant -	9*s.* if scholars are taught as a separate department and by a certificated teacher, or 7*s.*	1884. —or as a class under a teacher of not less than 18 years of age, approved by the Inspector. If infants are less than 20 not considered an infant class.	Fixed Grant. 9*s.* if the scholars are taught as a separate department under a certificated teacher of their own, or as a class under a teacher not less than 18 years of age, approved by the Inspector, or 7*s.* where the above special conditions are not satisfied.
Merit Grant -	2*s.* for a fair school or class, or 4*s.* for a good school or class, or 6*s.* for an excellent school or class.	1890. Variable. 2*s.*, 4*s.*, or 6*s.* according to the decision of the Department, founded on the Inspector's report.	Variable Grant. 2*s.*, 4*s.*, or 6*s.*, according to decision of the department, founded on Inspector's report.
Needlework Grant.	1*s.* on girls alone unless boys are also taught.	1890. If the boys are satisfactorily taught drawing instead of needlework, a grant of 1*s.* on this subject is paid.	1*s.* if scholars are satisfactorily taught, or for girls only, unless boys are taught needlework or drawing.
Singing Grant	1*s.* if scholars are taught by note, or 6*d.* if taught by ear.	1887. All the older scholars of the school (whether forming a separate department or not) must be taught by note in order that the 1*s.* grant should be paid.	1*s.* if the scholars are satisfactorily taught to sing by note, or 6*d.* if by ear. The older scholars of the school (whether forming a separate department or not) must be taught by note or the grant of 1*s.* will not be paid.

The following TABLE shows the GRANTS common to SCHOOLS for OLDER SCHOLARS and to INFANT SCHOOLS and CLASSES made to DAY SCHOOLS under the CODES 1882–1896.

Description of Grant.	Amount as appearing in the New Code 1882.	Alterations made between 1882–1895.	Amount as appearing in the Day School Code 1896.
Pupil-teachers' grant -	40*s.* for fair examination, or 60*s.* for good examination.	1890. 1st Year. 2nd Year. 3rd Year. Queen's Scholarship. For fair examination 1*l.* 1*l.* 2*l.* 4*l.* (2nd class). „ good „ 2*l.* 2*l.* 3*l.* 5*l.* (1st class).	As in Code for 1890.
Assistant-teachers' grant -	Nil - - - -	1883: 10*l.* (or 15*l.*), if assistant teacher who has served for 3 years in the same school, passes in second (or first) division in examination for certificates, taking second year's papers. 1884: —in schools under the same management. 1892: No grant after the 31st March 1895.	Nil.
Payment of children's fees	Those children who obtained Honour Certificates before 1st January 1882.		Nil.
Grants to schools for small populations.	10*l.* (or 15*l.*) if population of school district or within 2 miles, &c., is less than 300 (or 200) and there is no other public elementary school available.		As in Code for 1882.
Ditto - - -	Nil - - - -	1890. An extra grant of 10*l.* for schools where population o district,&c., is less than 500, under certain conditions as to staff, fees, &	As in Code for 1890.

The following TABLE shows the GRANTS made to EVENING SCHOOLS under the various CODES.

Description of Grant.	Code of 1871.	Code of 1882.	Code of 1890.	Evening Continuation School Code of 1893.
Average attendance, per scholar.	4*s.*	"Fixed grant" - - 4*s.* if school has met for 45–60 times, or 6*s.* if over 60 times.	Fixed grant as in Code of 1882.	Fixed grant (not calculated on average attendance). 1*s.* for every complete 12 hours during which scholars have received instruction.
On examination -	2*s.* 6*d.* for passing in reading. 2*s.* 6*d.* for passing in writing. 2*s.* 6*d.* for passing in arithmetic.	2*s.* for each pass in an elementary or special (*i.e.*, class or specific) subject. Scholars must take up elementary subjects and no more than two of the special subjects.	As in Code of 1882, except that the scholar need not take elementary subjects if he has passed Standard V. If taking elementary subjects, he can take not less than five subjects altogether; if not taking elementary subjects he must take up not less than two nor more than four special subjects.	Variable grant.—1*s.* 6*d.* or 1*s.* for every complete 12 hours of instruction in a subject,* provided at least 15 hours' instruction has been given. Scholars must take up not less than two nor more than five subjects. The Department decide which grant is to be paid on the inspector's report.
Cookery grant - -	Nil	Nil	2*s.* for each girl in Standard IV. or any higher Standard, who has attended 20 hours at a cookery class, and has spent 10 hours cooking with her own hands.	2*s.* (or 4*s.*) for each girl or woman who has attended 20 (or 40) hours at a cookery class and has spent 10 (or 20) hours cooking with her own hands.
Laundry work - -	Nil	Nil	Nil	2*s.* for each girl or woman who has received 20 hours' instruction.
Dairy work - -	Nil	Nil	Nil	4*s.* for each girl or woman who has received 40 hours' instruction, or —added in 1896—2*s.* 6*d.* if 25 hours only.

* Except cookery, laundry work, and dairy work.

TABLE showing the EFFECT of the LIMITATION of the AMOUNT of GRANT (DAY SCHOOLS), under Section 97 of Elementary Education Act, 1870, and Section 19 of the Elementary Education Act, 1876.*

Year ending 31st August.	Reduction caused by Grant being greater than Income of School from sources other than Annual Grant. Endowments not included till 1877.	Reduction caused by Grant being greater than One-half the Expenditure (1872-77 only).	Reduction caused by Grant exceeding 15*s.* or 17*s.* 6*d.* (according to the Code in force) per Unit of Average Attendance.	Total Reductions.	Grant paid.	Percentage of Reductions to Grants paid.
	£	£	£	£	£	
1871	13,395	—	15*s.* 836	14,231	639,660	2·2
1872	25,144	6,965	„ 3,847	35,956	789,689	4·5
1873	12,168	22,747	„ 4,700	39,615	902,177	4·3
1874	11,916	19,285	„ 5,457	36,658	1,031,609	3·5
1875	11,628	16,513	„ 4,057	32,198	1,157,768	2·7
1876	14,753	19,714	—	34,467	1,316,864	2·6
1877	13,233	16,488	—	29,721	1,543,226	1·9
1878	*a*		17*s.* 6*d.* *b*	*a* + *b* 1,569†	1,820,661	·0
1879	„		„ „	„ 2,742	1,981,720	·1
1880	„		„ „	„ 2,905	2,130,009	·1
1881	„		„ „	„ 3,297	2,247,507	·1
1882	„		„ „	„ 4,102	2,393,394	·1
1883	„		„ „	„ 5,859	2,518,642	·2
1884	„		„ „	„ 14,154	2,722,351	·5
1885	„		„ „	„ 23,787	2,867,653	·8
1886	„		„ „	„ 23,822	2,958,705	·8
1887	„		„ „	„ 25,526	3,071,547	·8
1888	„		„ „	„ 32,086	3,166,110	1·0
1889	„		„ „	„ 36,095	3,263,342	1·1
1890	„		„ „	„ 39,310	3,326,177	1·1
1891	6,180		„ 28,422	34,602	3,434,759	1·0
1892	7,120		„ 28,323	35,443	3,561,300	·9
1893	7,617		„ 32,678	40,295	3,783,237	1·0
1894	10,612		„ 34,382	44,994	3,926,641	1·1
1895	12,824		„ 40,005	52,829	4,081,281	1·2

* *See* page 35 *supra*.

† Returns not given separately for years 1878–90.

VII.—The Teaching Staff.

Table showing the Number of Teachers in Public Elementary Day Schools.

Year ending 31st August	Certificated Teachers.						Assistant Teachers.		Pupil-teachers (including Probationers).		Additional Teachers.
	Men.			Women.			Men.	Women.	Boys.	Girls.	Women.
	Trained.	Untrained.	Total.	Trained.	Untrained.	Total.					
									(Year ending 31st December for years 1870, 1875, and 1880.)		
1870	—	—	6,395	—	—	6,072	487	775	6,384	8,228	—
1875	7,548	2,284	9,829	7,324	3,787	11,111	984	1,729	10,842	18,403	—
1880	9,546	3,975	13,521	9,347	8,554	17,901	2,681	4,971	10,822	21,306	2,352
1885	11,287	5,026	16,313	11,371	13,022	24,393	5,104	11,514	7,625	20,113	4,292
1890	12,770	5,934	18,704	12,873	14,962	27,835	5,254	16,530	7,695	23,467	5,210
1895	15,023*	6,200	21,223	15,616†	16,102	31,718	5,047	22,914	7,246	26,757	11,678

* 14,275 trained for two years or over.
748 „ less than two years.

† 14,921 trained for two years or over.
695 „ less than two years.

AVERAGE SALARIES OF CERTIFICATED TEACHERS.

Year.	Masters.					Mistresses.				
	Average Salary of			Per-centage in receipt of Salaries over 300*l.*		Average Salary of			Per-centage in receipt of Salaries over 200*l.*	
	Principal Teachers.	Assistant Teachers.	All Teachers.	Principal.	All Teachers.	Principal Teachers.	Assistant Teachers.	All Teachers.	Principal.	All Teachers.
	£	£	£			£	£	£		
1870			94					57		
1875			109					65		
1880			121		1·05			73		·51
1885	132	90	121	2·11	1·56	79	63	74	2·05	1·34
1890	134	90	120	2·95	2·01	83	66	76	2·75	1·68
1895	138	98	123	3·21	1·97	88	73	81	3·51	1·93

In 1895, 40·85 per cent. of head and assistant masters were getting less than 100*l.* a year.

"The training colleges for masters do not supply the demand of the poorer class of schools; they practically supply the demand only of those schools which can afford to pay about 100*l.* a year for head or assistant teachers."—Her Majesty's Inspector Mr. Sharpe, Report 1879–80.

ACCOMMODATION and STUDENTS in RESIDENCE in TRAINING COLLEGES.

Accommodation in Residential Training Colleges.

Year.	Men.	Women.	Total.
1870–71	1,275	1,218	2,493
1895–96	1,447	2,178	3,625
Increase in 25 years.	172	960*	1,132 or 45·4 per cent.

* "If any permanent addition to training colleges is called for, it should be made to the colleges for schoolmistresses. The present provision for training young women is very slightly in excess of that for male students, while the number of girls and infants of school age for whom female teachers is required, is double that of boys."—*Report of Committee of Council on Education*, 1871-72.

*Students in Residence and in Day Training Colleges.**

Year.	College.	Men.	Women.	Total.
1870–71	Residential	1,112	1,203	2,315
1895–96	Residential	1,390	2,102	3,492
	Day	389	499	888
	Total	1,779	2,601	4,380
Increase in 25 years		667	1,398	2,065 or 89·2 per cent.

* Day training colleges were first opened in 1890.

VIII.—Schools, Accommodation, Number of Scholars, Average Attendance, &c.*

Inspected Day Schools.

Year ending 31st August	Number of Schools.†	Number for whom Accommodation has been Provided.	Number of Scholars on the Registers.	Average Attendance.	Annual Grant Paid.	Rate of Grant excluding Fee Grant and Science and Art Grants per Scholar in Average Attendance.
					£	s. d.
1871	8,798	2,012,679	1,802,419	1,231,434	639,660	10 1¾
1872	9,854	2,295,894	1,968,888	1,336,158	789,689	11 9¾
1873	11,094	2,582,549	2,218,598	1,482,480	902,177	12 2½
1874	12,246	2,861,319	2,497,602	1,678,759	1,031,609	12 3½
1875	13,217	3,146,424	2,744,300	1,837,180	1,157,768	12 7¼
1876	14,273	3,426,318	2,943,774	1,984,573	1,316,864	13 3¼
1877	15,187	3,653,418	3,154,973	2,150,683	1,543,226	14 4¼
1878	16,293	3,942,337	3,495,892	2,405,197	1,820,661	15 1¾
1879	17,166	4,142,224	3,710,883	2,594,995	1,981,720	15 3¼
1880	17,614	4,240,753	3,895,824	2,750,916	2,130,009	15 5¾
1881	18,062	4,389,633	4,045,362	2,863,535	2,247,507	15 8¼
1882	18,289	4,538,320	4,189,612	3,015,151	2,393,394	15 10½
1883	18,540	4,670,443	4,273,304	3,127,214	2,518,642	16 1¼
1884	18,761	4,826,738	4,337,321	3,273,124	2,722,351	16 7½
1885	18,895	4,998,718	4,412,148	3,371,325	2,867,658	17 0
1886	19,022	5,145,292	4,505,825	3,438,425	2,958,705	17 2½
1887	19,154	5,278,992	4,635,184	3,527,381	3,071,547	17 5
1888	19,221	5,356,554	4,687,510	3,614,967	3,166,110	17 6¼
1889	19,310	5,440,441	4,755,835	3,682,625	3,263,342	17 8¾
1890	19,419	5,539,285	4,804,149	3,717,917	3,326,177	17 10¾
1891	19,508	5,628,201	4,824,683	3,749,956	3,434,759	18 3¾
1892	19,515	5,692,975	5,006,979	3,870,774	3,561,300	18 4¾
1893	19,577	5,762,617	5,126,373	4,100,030	3,783,237	18 5½
1894	19,709	5,832,944	5,198,741	4,225,834	3,926,641	18 7
1895	19,739	5,937,288	5,299,469	4,325,030	4,081,281	18 10½

* In the Annual Report of the Education Department will be found a Table (E.) showing for the years 1869-95 (1.) Average cost of maintenance; (2.) Average grant paid; (3.) Average school fees; (4.) Average voluntary contributions or rates; *per child* in average attendance in voluntary and board schools respectively.

† The voluntary schools will be found separately at page 22 arranged under the various denominations.

TABLE showing the AVERAGE ATTENDANCE and the COST of MAINTENANCE in VOLUNTARY and BOARD DAY SCHOOLS.

[The cost of maintenance does not include sums spent for the purpose of new buildings, structural alteration, administration, or inspection.]

Year ending 31st August	Voluntary Schools.		Board Schools.	
	Average Attendance.	Cost of Maintenance per Scholar in Average Attendance.	Average Attendance.	Cost of Maintenance per Scholar in Average Attendance.
		£ s. d.		£ s. d.
1871	1,231,434	1 5 6¾	—	—
1872	1,327,432	1 7 5	8,726	1 8 4¼
1873	1,412,497	1 9 11¾	69,983	1 14 5½
1874	1,540,466	1 10 10½	138,293	1 15 4½
1875	1,609,895	1 11 10¼	227,285	1 16 11
1876	1,656,502	1 13 5¼	328,071	2 1 4½
1877	1,723,150	1 13 9	427,533	2 1 4¼
1878	1,846,119	1 14 0	559,078	2 1 9¾
1879	1,925,254	1 14 6	669,741	2 2 0¾
1880	1,981,664	1 14 7¾	769,252	2 1 11¾
1881	2,007,184	1 14 11½	856,351	2 1 6
1882	2,069,920	1 14 6¾	945,231	2 1 6½
1883	2,098,310	1 14 10¼	1,028,904	2 1 3½
1884	2,157,292	1 15 2	1,115,832	2 1 8½
1885	2,183,870	1 15 9½	1,187,455	2 5 4
1886	2,187,118	1 16 4½	1,251,307	2 4 11¾
1887	2,211,920	1 16 4½	1,315,461	2 4 7¼
1888	2,236,961	1 16 4	1,378,006	2 4 7½
1889	2,257,790	1 16 4½	1,424,835	2 4 6½
1890	2,260,559	1 16 11½	1,457,358	2 5 11½
1891	2,258,885	1 17 8	1,491,571	2 7 1¾
1892	2,300,877	1 17 9½	1,570,397	2 8 4¾
1893	2,411,362	1 17 6¼	1,688,668	2 8 1½
1894	2,448,037	1 18 1¾	1,777,797	2 8 9¾
1895	2,445,812	1 18 11¼	1,879,218	2 10 1¾

TABLE showing the PER-CENTAGE of the ACCOMMODATION in INSPECTED SCHOOLS, of the CHILDREN on the REGISTER of those SCHOOLS, and of their AVERAGE ATTENDANCE, to the ESTIMATED POPULATION of ENGLAND and WALES; also the PER-CENTAGE of the CHILDREN in AVERAGE ATTENDANCE to the NUMBERS on the REGISTERS.

Year ending 31st August	Accommodation in Inspected Schools to Estimated Population.*	Scholars on Registers to Estimated Population.†	Average Attendance to Estimated Population.†	Average Attendance to Children on Registers.
1871	9·19	7·91	6·31	68·32
1872	10·32	8·52	6·08	67·86
1873	11·05	9·48	6·34	66·82
1874	12·14	10·53	7·09	67·21
1875	13·13	11·46	7·67	66·95
1876	14·13	12·08	8·06	67·42
1877	14·88	12·77	8·70	68·17
1878	15·86	13·96	9·60	68·80
1879	16·46	14·63	10·31	69·93
1880	16·64	15·29	10·69	70·61
1881	16·85	15·52	10·99	70·79
1882	17·24	15·91	11·06	71·97
1883	17·35	15·87	11·74	73·18
1884	17·79	15·99	12·06	75·46
1885	18·18	16·04	12·26	76·41
1886	18·46	16·17	12·49	76·31
1887	18·69	16·41	12·48	76·10
1888	18·71	16·37	12·62	77·12
1889	18·75	16·39	12·69	77·43
1890	18·84	16·34	12·64	77·39
1891	19·35	16·59	12·89	77·72
1892	19·36	17·03	13·16	77·31
1893	19·38	17·24	13·79	79·98
1894	19·44	17·29	14·06	81·29
1895	19·53	17·43	14·23	81·61

* In some calculations made under this head, there is an apparent excess of accommodation over the needs of estimated population. This is due to various causes. Among these have been named, (*a*) shifting of population from some country districts; (*b*) accommodation provided by different kinds of voluntary schools in some non-board districts; (*c*) the fact that accommodation was formerly calculated by the Education Department on a basis differing from that now in force.

† Six-sevenths of the population between 3 and 13 years of age, or one-fifth of the whole population, are of the class whose children ought to attend public elementary schools. After making due allowance for absence on account of sickness, weather, distance from school, and other reasonable excuses for irregular attendance, it is generally calculated that school seats should be provided for one-sixth of the whole population and these seats are to be daily occupied.—(Report of Committee of Council, 1882-83.)

Number of Scholars on the School Registers in Schools Inspected for Grants and their Average Attendance.

Year ending 31st Aug.	Under 3 Years of Age.	3 and under 4.	4 and under 5.	5 and under 6.	6 and under 7.	7 and under 8.	8 and under 9.	9 and under 10.	10 and under 11.	11 and under 12.	12 and under 13.	13 and under 14.	14 and over (1871-91) under 15 (1892-5).	15 and over.	Total.	Average Attendance.	Percentage of Number in Average Attendance to Number on School Registers.	In addition to the Children in Schools Inspected for a Grant there were the following Number of Scholars for whom Grants were not paid.	
																		On the Annual Grant List.*	In simple Inspected Schools up to 1876, and in Certified Efficient Schools, 1877-95.
1871	6,687	111,397	164,211	196,999	207,930	212,342	214,254	199,596	177,842	141,342	98,867	47,167	23,785		1,802,419	1,231,434	68·32	No record.	24,656
1872	18,755	86,520	182,359	219,867	236,535	231,266	236,381	224,279	195,619	154,521	100,877	48,957	23,952		1,968,888	1,336,158	67·86	„	29,589
1873	17,666	92,570	197,654	248,553	263,957	262,266	266,830	257,649	229,723	178,450	126,244	55,407	23,609		2,218,598	1,482,480	66·82	„	30,099
1874	19,002	103,715	218,310	276,883	298,681	292,388	298,285	287,242	262,965	210,532	146,786	58,045	24,828		2,497,092	1,678,759	67·21	„	32,192
1875	19,358	111,409	232,630	297,134	323,464	320,442	324,901	315,496	292,724	242,042	172,449	65,307	26,944		2 744,360	1,837,180	66·95	„	25,996
1876	19,303	117,196	242,063	317,405	345,282	342,414	348,072	337,581	315,136	263,778	192,804	74,487	28,283		2,943,774	1,984,573	67·42	„	23,159
1877	17,344	120,272	259,356	334,518	368,626	361,304	370,701	359,597	339,404	285,211	213,306	93,804	31,530		3,154,973	2,150,683	68·17	„	3,142
1878	16,932	123,426	270,442	374,890	403,867	404,626	402,117	390,317	378,713	327,900	245,506	112,238	35,918		3,495,893	2,405,197	68·80	„	14,005
1879	14,826	113,470	261,813	381,470	436,437	427,953	432,872	423,794	410,714	359,651	278,959	128,488	40,406		3,710,883	2,594,995	69·93	„	22,587
1880	13,180	118,127	263,396	390,464	450,260	461,031	443,978	448,243	426,102	382,844	303,262	150,579	44,358		3,893,824	2,750,916	70·61	„	22,814
1881	11,629	117,250	273,244	398,622	467,494	478,263	476,696	458,623	447,421	395,235	317,563	157,584	45,727		4,045,302	2,863,535	70·79	„	25,067
1882	11,772	122,998	281,356	419,985	478,498	490,082	489,745	486,475	456,822	415,406	322,950	158,956	45,567		4,189,612	3,015,151	71·97	„	21,004
1883	10,418	121,640	284,104	424,966	495,801	507,286	506,458	495,010	480,931	420,339	333,359	150,245	42,747		4,273,304	3,127,214	73·18	„	21,252
1884	10,106	124,158	286,346	434,464	495,983	518,101	510,655	511,427	487,373	440,385	331,004	147,296	40,023		4,337,321	3,273,124	75·46	„	17,805
1885	8,986	127,540	290,181	441,038	503,000	519,281	527,448	518,141	505,050	445,829	344,689	141,554	39,420		4,412,148	3,371,325	76·41	53,670	18,774
1886	7,786	128,970	294,242	448,790	515,353	524,739	528,604	537,305	514,080	466,340	351,283	148,289	40,044		4,505,825	3,438,425	76·31	47,926	18,739
1887	7,377	135,154	310,273	464,939	528,932	536,136	538,342	541,551	536,787	475,479	367,476	150,430	42,523		4,635,184	3.527,381	76·10	25,117	17,589
1888	6,668	133,332	307,790	477,304	535,708	540,841	542,297	545,753	535,234	491,802	371,957	154,843	43,981		4,687,519	3,614,967	77·12	26,516	16,595
1889	6,592	137,655	319,897	480,733	550,893	547,639	551,152	551,752	542,678	490,625	380,714	152,348	43,157		4,755,835	3,682,625	77·43	24,068	15,833
1890	5,887	140,855	322,495	494,430	550,053	562,671	554,867	560,811	548,103	495,780	375,804	150,602	41,782		4,804,149	3,717,917	77·39	21,411	13,888
1891	5,548	134,652	322,355	494,880	564,918	554,563	565,719	562,797	555,585	499,402	379,672	145,523	39,069		4,824,683	3,749,956	77·72	8,646	13,469
1892	5,099	158,063	354,176	518,312	575,486	574,797	567,283	581,034	562,956	517,858	399,261	152,930	34,006	5,178	5,006,979	3,870,774	77·31	30,423	10,744
1893	4,402	160,078	361,831	525,092	583,156	577,578	584,259	579,799	578,837	530,849	428,670	168,095	37,838	5,889	5,126,373	4,100,630	79·98	27,169	8,424
1894	3,899	157,541	364,632	527,154	582,568	585,357	586,252	594,721	577,060	547,941	443,171	181,136	40,967	6,362	5,198,741	4,225,854	81·29	37,146	7,653
1895	3,508	165,175	362,539	534,986	587,579	586,150	592,670	597,637	595,025	554,603	469,100	197,327	45,823	7,347	5,299,469	4,325,030	81·61	26,389	6,287

* This column refers to scholars in schools which, though on the annual grant list, were not inspected for grants during the year named, either on account of a change of date in their inspection or through their being new schools of only a few months' standing.

*Remarks on foregoing Table.**

(1.) Over 9,000,000 children have left the schools in the last 25 years, and as there were over 5,250,000 children on the books on the 31st August 1895, it follows that the elementary schools of England and Wales have during the last 25 years provided instruction for over 14,250,000 children.

(2.) The attendance of children under 3 years of age is decreasing. Whereas in 1875 there were 19,358 on the registers, or ·7 per cent. of the total number; in 1885 there were but 8,986, or ·2 per cent. of the total; and in 1895 only 3,508, or ·07 per cent. of the total.

(3.) The number that leave school at 10 years of age is decreasing. The per-centage of scholars to the total number in the schools in the following years were as follows:—

	10 and under 11.	11 and under 12.	12 and under 13.	13 and under 14.	14 and over.	Total over 10 Years of Age.
In 1875 - -	10·67	8·82	6·28	2·38	·98	29·13
„ 1880 - -	10·94	9·83	7·78	3·86	1·14	33·55
„ 1885 - -	11·45	10·11	7·81	3·21	·89	33·47
„ 1890 - -	11·41	10·32	7·82	3·14	·87	33·56
„ 1895 - -	11·22	10·47	8·85	3·72	1·00	35·27

Thus while the per-centage of the children over 10 to the total number in the school was only 29·13 in 1875, and 33·55, 33·47, 33·56 respectively in the years 1880, 1885, and 1890, it had risen in 1895 to 35·27.

And while in 1890 there were 548,103 children between 10–11.
„ 1891 „ 499,402 „ 11–12.

Number who left - 48,701 or over 1 per cent. of the total children on books.

In 1894 there were 577,060 between 10–11.
„ 1895 „ 554,603 „ 11–12.

Number who left - 22,457 or less than ·5 per cent of the total children on books.

(4.) The number of children who remain at school after they are 14 years of age, which showed a tendency to decrease from 1882 to 1892, rose from ·78 per cent. of the whole number on the registers in 1892, to ·85 per cent. in 1893, to ·91 per cent. in 1894, and to 1 per cent. in 1895.

(5.) The present average school life of children attending public elementary day schools is from 8 to 9 years.

* The calculations are based on numbers on registers.

TABLE showing the NUMBER of HALF-TIME SCHOLARS attending the PUBLIC ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS.

During Year ending 31st August.	Number.	During Year ending 31st August.	Number.
1876 - -	201,284	1886 - -	168,543
1877 - -	210,536	1887 - -	172,226
1878 - -	216,510	1888 - -	168,300
1879 - -	211,425	1889 - -	170,686
1880 - -	193,953	1890 - -	175,437
1881 - -	185,980	1891 - -	173,040
1882 - -	177,126	1892 - -	172,363
1883 - -	164,410	1893 - -	164,018
1884 - -	168,818	1894 - -	140,831
1885 - -	175,039	1895 - -	126,896

AN "AVERAGE DAY SCHOOL," according to the Statistics of 1895.

This Table is designed to show the size, income, and teaching staff of an average day school according to the statistics of all the schools inspected by the Education Department, in the year ending 31st August 1895. For the sake of comparison the figures returned by five actual schools are also given.

	According to the Statistics of the Education Department for the Year ending 31st Aug. 1895.	Actual Schools.*					Average of the Five Schools.
		Voluntary Schools.			Board Schools.		
		In Yorkshire.		In Somersetshire.	In Warwickshire.	In Essex.	
		30 Sept. 1896.	31 Mar. 1896.	29 Feb. 1896.	Year ending 30 Apr. 1896.	Year ending 29 Feb. 1896.	
Accommodation -	300	247	258	310	300	293	281
Number of children on registers.	268	269	281	309	311	251	294
Average attendance -	219	205	238	238	216	210	221
Number of free scholars.	229	32	22	309	311	251	185
Number of fee-paying scholars.	39	237	259	0	0	0	99
Number of half-time scholars.	6·4	0	14	0	0	0	2·8
Income of school -	478*l.*	405*l.*	415*l.*	473*l.*	527*l.*	543*l.*	472*l.*
Teachers:—							
Certificated - -	2·6	2	1	2	3	3	2·2
Assistant - -	1·4	1	3	1	1	3	1·8
Pupil-teachers -	1·5	3	3	4	2	0	2·4
Additional - -	·5	1	0	3	1	0	1·
Salary of principal teachers:—							
Master - -	138*l.*	164*l.*	200*l.*	152*l.*	125*l.*	110*l.*	150*l.*
Mistress - -	88*l.*	60*l.*	0	70*l.*	80*l.* and 60*l.*	80*l.* and 70*l.*	70*l.*
Savings bank - -	·4	1	1	1	0	1	·8
Library - - -	·3	1	0	1	0	0	·4
Annual grant paid by Education Department.	206*l.*	186*l.*	226*l.*	234*l.*	191*l.*	188*l.*	205*l.*

* It will be understood that these schools are in no way quoted as representative of typical voluntary or board schools. They were only chosen on account of their average attendance being near the average of all the schools.

Night Schools and Evening Continuation Schools.

During the years 1839–1860 only 2,916*l.* was paid out of the education grant in the form of grants to night schools. This was partly due to the fact that the teachers in day elementary schools were forbidden to give instruction in night schools also. The Revised Code of 1861 permitted day school teachers to teach in night schools, and this led to a great increase in the grants paid to them. The Codes, however, for many years made it obligatory that scholars in night schools earning grants should undergo examination in the three elementary subjects —reading, writing, and arithmetic. But the development of elementary education, which followed from the working of the Act of 1870, produced an increasing number of scholars who desired a continuation school of another type and a different kind of curriculum, while it proportionately diminished the number of those more adult students, formerly numerous, who needed instruction in elementary subjects. Accordingly, as will be seen from the table of statistics, the number of scholars in night schools materially declined between the years 1876 and 1884–5. About that time, however, the changes in the method of awarding grant introduced by the Code of 1882 began to take effect, and the number of scholars from 1885 onwards showed a rapid and permanent increase. This evidently drew more attention to the educational work which might be accomplished by evening schools. The question naturally came before the Royal Commission on Elementary Education, which reported in 1888. The Commissioners recommended that "the evening school "system should be thoroughly revised; that a special curriculum "and special schedule of standards and subjects should be allowed, "suitable to the needs of a locality, and that the local managers "should be encouraged to submit such schedules to the Depart- "ment for approval; that the provision embodied in the Code "requiring all scholars in evening schools to pass in the three "elementary subjects as a condition of taking additional "subjects should cease to be enforced; and that no superior "limit of age should be imposed on the scholars." The Commissioners added that "the evening schools of the future should "be regarded and organised chiefly as schools for maintaining "and continuing the education already received in the day "school, but that, for some years to come, it would be neces- "sary to repeat in the evening school, in greater or less "proportion, the course of instruction given in the day school."

In 1890 the Education Code (1890) Act provided that it should not be required as a condition of a parliamentary grant to an evening school that elementary education should be the principal part of the education there given, and the Code, as regards evening schools, was altered accordingly. In 1893 an entirely new Code was introduced for evening continuation schools with the object of "giving freedom to managers in the "organization of their schools, of offering to managers and "teachers a wide choice of subjects adapted to the various "needs of scholars and districts, and of enabling manager-

" combine instruction in subjects for which grants are paid by " the State with instruction in other subjects for which no such " grants are paid, but which it may be for special reasons " desirable to include in the curriculum." (Evening Continuation School Code Explanatory Memorandum.) The Code suggested a variety of courses of instruction; recognised the attendance of persons over 21 years of age; sanctioned the payment of grants for the instruction of the school as a whole instead of for the attainments of individual scholars; and made other important changes in the methods of awarding the Government grants to these schools. The large increase in the number of scholars attending the evening continuation schools, since the introduction of the new code of regulations, shows to how great extent the latter have met the requirements of scholars who, though no longer subject to the law of compulsory attendance at school, wish "to continue their education either in " the ordinary school subjects, or in some special subjects in order " to fit themselves for some industrial career." Since 1893 the work of the evening continuation schools has become, to a considerable extent, secondary rather than elementary in character.

EVENING SCHOOLS.

Session.	Number of Departments.	Number of Scholars on the Register.	Average Attendance.	Grant paid.	Rate of Grant per Scholar in Average Attendance.	Scholars on the Registers over 21 Years of Age.*
				£	*s. d.*	
1870–1	2,646	—	83,457	27,734	6 7¾	No record.
1871–2	2,063	—	66,388	22,778	6 10¼	,,
1872–3	1,395	—	45,973	17,679	7 8¼	,,
1873–4	1,432	—	48,690	18,650	7 8	,,
1874–5	1,392	—	48,382	18,758	7 9	,,
1875–6	1,474	88,950	49,858	20,012	8 0¼	,,
1876–7	1,733	98,859	57,785	24,292	8 5	2,127
1877–8	1,718	94,782	56,501	24,537	8 8¼	2,267
1878–9	1,561	88,881	53,530	23,081	8 9½	2,429
1879–80	1,363	77,307	46,069	19,599	8 6	2,028
1880–1	1,222	64,471	39,222	15,624	7 11½	1,840
1881–2	1,015	53,258	33,135	13,244	8 0	1,654
1882–3	932	47,624	28,293	12,295	8 7½	2,111
1883–4	847	41,567	24,434	11,617	9 6	1,848
1884–5	839	40,854	24,233	12,032	9 11¼	2,134
1885–6	841	42,423	26,089	13,174	10 1¼	2,373
1886–7	917	49,128	30,584	15,550	10 2	2,582
1887–8	980	51,338	33,300	17,113	10 3¼	2,510
1888–9	1,043	56,525	37,118	19,603	10 6¾	2,541
1889–90	1,173	64,810	43,347	23,154	10 8¼	2,854
1890–1	1,388	76,915	51,974	28,384	10 11¼	3,626
1891–2	1,604	96,842	65,561	36,600	11 2	4,993
1892–3	1,977	115,582	81,068	45,666	11 3¼	6,617
1893–4	3,742	266,683	115,530	91,540	15 10¼	37,043
1894–5	3,947	270,285	129,523	112,084	17 3¾	35,717

* Down to 1893–4, scholars over 21 years of age were not recognised for grants.

IX.—Subjects of Instruction in Day Schools.

The subjects of instruction in 1871 were :—

Obligatory—Reading, writing, arithmetic, and (for girls) plain needlework and cutting out.

Optional.—Specific subjects (*see* page 60) for scholars in Standards IV.–VI, but it was distinctly stated that drawing and music would not be recognised as specific subjects, and (for boys) drill.

The following are Articles of the Day School Code, 1896 :—

Article 15.—The subjects of instruction for which grants may be made are the following :—

(*a.*) *Obligatory Subjects.*—Reading, writing, and arithmetic (called "the elementary subjects"), needlework (for girls), drawing (for boys in schools for older scholars), object lessons (for Standards I.–III. or in the lower group of schools taking schemes as given in Schedule S.), one class subject (for those scholars not taking object lessons).

(*b.*) *Optional Subjects :—*

(i.) Taken by classes throughout the school :—Singing, recitation, drawing (for boys in infant schools and classes), and the following subjects called "class-subjects," English, or Welsh (in Wales), or French (in the Channel Islands), geography, elementary science, history, suitable occupations (for Standards I.–III), needlework for girls (optional as a *class* subject), domestic economy (for girls).

(ii.) Taken by individual children in the upper classes of the school, and called "specific subjects" :—Algebra, Euclid, mensuration, mechanics, chemistry, physics, animal physiology, hygiene, botany, principles of agriculture, horticulture, navigation, Latin, French, Welsh (for scholars in schools in Wales), German, book-keeping, shorthand (according to some system recognised by the Education Department), domestic economy (for girls).

(iii.) Cookery, laundry work, and dairy work (for girls), and cottage gardening (for boys).

Article 16.—Any subject, other than those mentioned in Article 15*b*. (ii.) may, if sanctioned by the Department, be taken as a specific subject, provided that a graduated scheme for teaching it be submitted to, and approved by, the inspector.

Article 17.—Instruction may be given in other secular subjects approved by the Department, and in religious subjects, but no grant is made in respect of any such instruction.

Article 85*b*.—The Department must be satisfied that as part of the ordinary course of instruction (1) the girls are taught plain needlework and cutting out, (2) that older scholars throughout the school are taught at least one class subject (which in any school year beginning after the 31st August 1896 must not be needlework), and (3) the boys in a school for older scholars are satisfactorily taught drawing either with or without any manual instruction. The instruction in drawing will be required to satisfy the Science and Art Department.

By Article 12 *f* provision is made in addition to the subjects above mentioned for instruction in manual instruction, suitable physical exercises (*e.g.*, swimming, gymnastics, Swedish drill), military drill (for boys), and housewifery (for girls), also for visits to institutions of educational value and to national and historical buildings.

Class Subjects.

Class subjects were first introduced into the Code of 1875 in these words: "The managers of a school . . . . may claim " . . . . the sum of 4*s.* per scholar according to the average "number of children, above seven years of age, in attendance "throughout the year, if the *classes* from which the children "are examined in Standards II.–VI., or in specific subjects, pass "a creditable examination in any two of the following subjects, "viz., grammar, history, elementary geography, and plain "needlework."

In the Committee of Council's report for 1879–80 it is stated that "the class subjects, the grants for which depend upon the "general proficiency of the classes, and are not paid upon "individual scholars, have hitherto been confined to grammar, "geography, history, and needlework; and in the past year, "which showed an average attendance of 1,743,817 scholars "above seven, grants have been paid in respect of 1,572,780 "scholars, of whom 1,272,455 passed in two subjects. By a "change proposed in the Code of 1880, the choice of managers "is no longer confined to these four subjects, but may extend to "any others which can be reasonably accepted as special branches "of elementary instruction, and properly treated in reading "books, graded so as to suit the capacities of the children of "various ages, in whose hands they are placed."

New subjects were not, however, taken up to any considerable extent. In the year ended 31st August 1882, natural history was taught in 11 instances, domestic economy in 8, chemistry in 2, agriculture in 1, and mensuration in 1.

By the New Code of 1882, applying to grants which fell due on and after the 30th April 1883, the recognised class subjects were stated to be English, geography, elementary science, history, and needlework. English was compulsory if any subject was taken, and history was confined to the upper standards; these restrictions remained until 1890. During the years 1886–7 drawing was recognised as a class subject, but it was taught only in 240 schools in 1886, and in 505 schools in 1887. During these two years, moreover, schools could claim grants for three class subjects.

By the Code of 1893 Welsh (in Wales), and French (in the Channel Islands); by the Code of 1894 domestic economy, and by the Code of 1895 object lessons and suitable occupations for Standards I.–III. were added to the class subjects.

"The wider range of class subjects allowed by the Code under "the head of 'elementary science' is being gradually taken "advantage of."—Committee of Council Report, 1895–6.

One class subject is now obligatory in all day schools for older scholars. For any school year beginning after the 31st August 1895 object lessons must be taken as an obligatory

subject in Standards I., II., and III. (or in the lower group in schools taking schemes in Schedule S.).—Code of 1896.

The subjects, therefore, that can now be taught as class subjects are:—

1. English, or Welsh (in Wales), or French (in the Channel Islands).
2. Geography.
3. Elementary Science.
4. History.
5. Object lessons, for Standards I., II., III.
6. Suitable occupations „ „ „
7. Needlework (for girls only).
8. Domestic Economy (for girls only).

The following table shows the number of Departments teaching the various class subjects, 1884–95:—

Year ending 31st August	English.	Geography.	History.	Elementary Science.	*Needlework (for girls only).	Domestic Economy (for girls only).	Welsh.
1884 -	19,080	12,775	382	51	5,929		
1885 -	19,431	12,336	386	45	6,499		
1886 -	19,688	12,055	375	43	6,809		
1887 -	19,917	12,035	383	39	7,137		
1888 -	20,041	12,058	390	36	7,424		
1889 -	20,151	12,171	386	36	7,620		
1890 -	20,304	12,367	414	32	7,758		
1891 -	19,835	12,806	750	173	8,026		
1892 -	18,175	13,485	1,627	788	7,655		
1893 -	17,394	14,256	2,209	1,073	7,612		
1894 -	17,030	15,250	2,972	1,215	7,675		1
1895 -	16,272	15,702	3,597	1,396	7,396	316	8

* Needlework must be taught to all girls, but in the majority of schools the extra grant of 1*s.* is claimed thereon under Article 101 (*c*). "It is the smaller schools that "claim for needlework under Article 101 (*c*), the average 'number for payment' "per school under this Article being 54, as against 112—the average of schools "claiming grant as a class subject."—Report of Committee of Council, 1895–6.

Specific Subjects.

The Committee of Council in their Report for 1859–60 (relating to schools in Great Britain) gave tables representing the per-centage of schools "in which the inspector, after a "personal visit, reports the specified subject of instruction to be "taught excellently, well, or fairly"; and in these tables we find that in 1857, while reading is credited with 84·06 per cent., writing with 87·7 per cent., and arithmetic with 77·6 per cent., geography has 81·8 per cent., grammar 70·7 per cent., and British history 75·6 per cent. But the "tables do not show "(except indirectly) what proportion or number of *children* are "becoming proficient in the specified subjects, but the pro-"portion of *schools* in which the subjects are being sufficiently "well taught, and may be learnt by regular and diligent "scholars."

Extra grants were first offered in 1867 to schools which, *inter alia*, taught one or more specific subjects of secular instruction beyond reading, writing, and arithmetic; but it was under the New Code of 1871 that a special grant was first made for each individual scholar passing. The words of the Code are:—

"If the time-table of the school, in use throughout the year, has provided for one or more specific subjects of secular instruction beyond Article 28 (*i.e.*, beyond reading, writing, and arithmetic):—

"A grant of 3*s.* per subject may be made for every day scholar, presented in Standards IV.–VI., who passes a satisfactory examination in not more than two of such subjects (Schedule IV.)."

And Schedule IV. stated "The specific subject of secular "instruction, may be:—

"Geography, history, grammar, algebra, geometry, natural philosophy, physical geography, the natural sciences, political economy, languages or *any* definite subject of instruction extending over the classes to be examined, in Standards IV., V., and VI., and taught according to a graduated scheme of which the inspector can report that it is well adapted to the capacity of the children and is sufficiently distinct from the ordinary reading-book lessons to justify its description as a 'specific subject of instruction.'"

By the Code of 1875, the grant was raised to 4*s.* a subject, and children who had passed Standard VI. were allowed to take up three subjects; but geography, history, and grammar became

"class subjects" and were removed from those in which scholars could be individually examined; algebra, Euclid, and mensuration were joined together under the name of mathematics. The consequence of these changes was that fewer children were presented for examination in 1877 than in the preceding year, the total number of children presented decreasing from 89,186 to 64,470, and the total number of presentations from 145,524 to 95,497; or, in other words, the per-centage of children presented in specific subjects to the total number of children on the register decreased from 3 per cent. to 2 per cent.

The joining of algebra to Euclid and mensuration affected considerably the number of children taking up those subjects. The number of children presented in algebra was 2,884 in 1872, 3,681 in 1873, 4,653 in 1874, and 5,913 in 1875, while the number presented in Euclid were 17, 0, 77, and 78 respectively; and in mensuration 33, 53, 89, and 28 respectively. In 1877 the total number presented in mathematics was only 3,806, and that it was this amalgamation of the three subjects that caused fewer children to be presented may be seen in the fact that whereas in 1882 6,422 children were presented in mathematics, in 1883, when algebra was again separated, the number rapidly increased, and in 1884 24,787 children were presented, and this number has gone on increasing.

By the Code of 1882 English and physical geography were, from the 30th April 1883, added to the class subjects, the latter subject being included in "geography." Those scholars only who where in Standards V.–VII. were allowed to be examined in specific subjects, and no more than two subjects were to be taken by any scholar. The separation of algebra from Euclid and mensuration—as was just noted—also took place. The presentations in English and physical geography had been numerous, the last four years showed 80,137, 113,193, 127,313, and 140,772 in English, and 29,459, 34,288, 34,382, and 34,207 in physical geography. The difference in the numbers presented in specific subjects was again conspicuous. In 1882, 279,664 presentations were made by 185,157 children, and in 1884 only 89,980 presentations by 66,634 children; and the per-centage of children presented to the total number on the books, which had been gradually increasing from 2 per cent. in 1877 to 4·4 per cent. in 1882, decreased in 1884 to 1·5 per cent.

As to the substitution of Standard V. for Standard IV. as the lowest standard qualifying for presentation in specific subjects the Education Department in their Report, 1879–80, say, "Acting "upon the nearly unanimous opinion of the inspectors . . . "We have done so because a large number of the children "in Standard IV., on which they ought to enter at nine years "of age, are not only not qualified to commence the study "of these advanced subjects, but are not likely to remain long "enough at school to be able to make any reasonable progress.

" in any one or more of them. In a very large proportion of the " country, children of 10 years of age and upwards, who have " passed Standard IV., being freed from the obligation to attend " school, are entitled to go to work and they do so. Out of " 193,596 children presented in that standard in 1878, as many " as 78,566 disappeared from our schools in 1879, while the " 95,510 scholars in Standard V. of 1878 fell in the year to " 42,184. Former experience proved that the first and easiest " stages of some of the specific subjects were taught in many " schools merely as a means of earning larger grants."

In the Code of 1890 Euclid and mensuration were recognised as separate subjects, and mensuration, although not taught to as many scholars as algebra, showed in 1895 a presentation of 5,614 scholars as compared with 1,468 presented in Euclid.

By the Code of 1892 the grant for specific subjects after the 31st August 1892 was to be " 2*s.* or 3*s.* for each scholar presented " in any specific subject." No scholar was to be presented in more than two specific subjects, and the Department was to decide " which, if either, of these sums of 2*s.* and 3*s.* shall be paid after " considering the report and recommendation of the Inspector." The consequence of this change will be that, whereas in the former days a doubtful child was presented as he " might pass," now only those children who are properly taught will be presented for examination, as the failure of several will cause the grant for the whole school to be refused.

The subjects that have been taught under this heading of specific subjects, in addition to those already mentioned are mechanics, Latin, French, German, animal physiology, botany, principles of agriculture, chemistry, sound, light and heat, magnetism and electricity, book-keeping, shorthand, domestic economy (for girls), elementary science, experimental mechanics, fruit culture, geology, history (advanced), horticulture, hygiene, manual instruction and applied drawing, natural philosophy, navigation, practical science, political economy, and social economy.

Although this list looks a long one, it must be remembered that, with the exception of the subjects given in the table below the other subjects are taught to very few scholars and in some cases probably the subject is more or less familiar to the children. Also, specific subjects are only taught to about 1 in 50 of the children in public elementary schools, the percentage of children presented to the total number on the registers being 1·8 per cent. in 1891, 1·7 per cent. in 1892, 1·9 per cent. in 1893, 2·1 per cent. in 1894, and 2·4 per cent. in 1895. The table shows that the most popular subjects of instruction are algebra, domestic economy (for girls), mechanics, and animal physiology. The numbers that are presented in shorthand are increasing yearly, but while the numbers in French and German show a slight annual increase, those in Latin are decreasing, and

in the last year only 250 were presented. The number of children presented in the principles of agriculture remain about the same from year to year, and were only 1,196 last year, only half of the number presented in botany, and not a thirtieth of those presented in algebra. The subjects taken up by the smallest number of children are (omitting Welsh) Euclid, Latin, sound, light and heat, and the principles of agriculture.

TABLE showing the NUMBER of DAY SCHOLARS PRESENTED

Year ending 31 August.	Geography.	Grammar.	History.	Literature. English	Geography. Physical	Algebra.	Euclid.	Mensuration.	Mechanics.	Latin.	French or German.
1872	59,774	18,426	16,465	11,085	1,936	2,884	17	33	—	32	225
1873	61,361	20,388	16,762	19,817	658	3,681	—	53	—	46	174
1874	62,070	23,330	15,256	26,881	1,088	4,633	77	89	37	36	422
1875	68,451	29,202	17,710	39,211	2,087	5,913	78	28	—	65	678
1876	47,200	26,017	10,957	34,931	8,553	5,860			299	452	1,457
1877	—	—	—	44,790	18,936	3,806			584	616	1,901
1878	—	—	—	58,966	23,126	3,820			894	654	1,921
1879	—	—	—	80,137	29,459	5,253			1,621	864	2,577
1880	—	—	—	113,193	34,283	5,628			2,109	881	3,336
1881	—	—	—	127,313	34,382	6,174			2,458	1,006	3,394
1882	—	—	—	140,772	34,207	6,422			3,933	956	3,730
1883	—	—	—	109,485	22,521	8,256	4,750	604	4,136	720	4,783
1884	—	—	—	—	—	24,787	2,010		3,380	454	5,011
1885	—	—	—	—	—	25,347	1,269		3,763	365	5,178
1886	—	—	—	—	—	25,393	1,247		4,972	342	5,040
1887	—	—	—	—	—	25,103	995		6,348	363	5,519
1888	—	—	—	—	—	26,448	1,006		7,292	371	6,102
1889	—	—	—	—	—	27,465	928		9,651	350	6,728
1890	—	—	—	—	—	30,035	977		11,362	360	7,236
1891	—	—	—	—	—	31,349	870	1,489	15,559	347	8,493
1892	—	—	—	—	—	28,542	927	2,802	18,000	260	8,845
1893	—	—	—	—	—	31,487	1,279	3,762	20,023	247	10,161
1894	—	—	—	—	—	33,612	1,399	4,018	21,532	226	11,341
1895	—	—	—	—	—	38,237	1,468	5,614	23,806	250	12,859

in the Various SPECIFIC SUBJECTS, 1872–95.

Animal Physiology.	Botany.	Principles of Agriculture.	Chemistry.	Sound, Light and Heat.	Magnetism and Electricity.	Book-keeping.	Shorthand.	Welsh.	Domestic Economy (Girls).	Other Subjects.*	Total Number of Presentations.	Total Number of Children presented in Specific Subjects.	Per-centage of Children presented to Scholars on Register.
901	—	—	9	8 (Physics.)		—	—	—	357	23	111,275	71,507	3·6
725	—	—	14	70 (Physics.)		—	—	—	600	24	124,373	77,896	3·5
660	45	—	41	115 (Physics.)		—	—	—	844	148	135,792	84,620	3·3
966	58	—	26	11 (Physics.)		—	—	—	1,211	62	165,757	102,541	3·7
5,236	483	—	27	20 (Physics.)		—	—	—	3,307	24	145,524	89,186	3·0
13,032	913	—	—	—		—	—	—	10,919	—	95,497	64,470	2·6
15,866	928	—	—	—		—	—	—	24,636	—	130,801	85,520	2·4
20,506	1,332	—	—	—		—	—	—	37,409	—	179,158	119,429	3·2
24,725	1,853	—	—	—		—	—	—	50,797	—	236,810	160,333	4·1
25,886	1,903	—	—	—		—	—	—	55,993	—	258,509	173,665	4·2
27,683	2,149	—	—	—		—	—	—	59,812	—	279,664	185,157	4·4
29,027	2,672	422	368	196	1,133	—	—	—	49,037	2	238,112	159,262	3·7
22,857	2,604	1,859	1,047	1,253	3,244	—	—	—	21,458	16	89,980	66,634	1·5
20,869	2,415	1,481	1,095	1,231	2,864	—	—	—	19,437	112	85,429	64,376	1·4
18,523	1,992	1,351	1,158	1,334	2,951	27	—	—	19,556	385	84,271	64,924	1·4
17,338	1,589	1,137	1,488	1,158	2,250	—	—	192	20,716	221	84,417	66,574	1·4
16,940	1,598	1,151	1,808	978	1,977	83	—	369	20,787	175	87,085	69,439	1·4
15,893	1,944	1,199	1,531	1,076	1,669	109	—	419	22,064	107	91,133	72,781	1·5
15,842	1,830	1,228	2,007	1,183	2,293	30	—	459	23,094	98	98,354	78,611	1·6
15,050	2,115	1,231	1,847	1,085	2,554	138	814	576	27,475	559	111,551	90,087	1·8
13,622	1,845	1,085	1,935	1,163	2,338	699	3,005	393	26,447	220	112,730	90,07	1·7
14,060	1,968	909	2,387	1,168	2,181	1,334	5,650	402	29,210	650	126,878	100,120	1·9
15,271	2,052	1,231	3,043	1,175	3,040	1,550	8,293	534	32,922	1,243	142,480	113,384	2·1
17,003	2,483	1,196	3,850	914	3,198	2,280	10,332	548	36,239	1,826	162,103	128,012	2·4

* **Elementary science, experimental mechanics, fruit culture, geology, history, horticulture, hygiene, manual instruction and applied drawing, natural philosophy, navigation, physiography, practical science, political economy, and social economy.**

TABLE showing the NUMBER of DEPARTMENTS in which SINGING is TAUGHT by EAR and by NOTES (Staff Notation, Tonic Sol-fa, &c.).

Year ending 31st August	Number of Departments in which Singing is taught.	
	By Ear.	By Notes.
1871	—	—
1872	—	—
1873	—	—
1874	13,747	3,776
1875	15,391	3,696
1876	16,823	3,815
1877	18,304	3,600
1878	19,921	3,572
1879	21,224	3,554
1880	21,718	3,790
1881	22,151	4,139
1882	22,352	4,329
1883	21,743	5,493
1884	18,593	9,248
1885	17,935	10,307
1886	17,020	11,525
1887	16,061	12,797
1888	14,951	14,034
1889	14,023	15,104
1890	13,054	16,227
1891	11,833	17,645
1892	10,623	18,996
1893	9,655	20,106
1894	8,690	21,300
1895	7,892	22,302

NOTE.—By the New Codes of 1872 and 1873 it was declared that the grant was subject to reduction—

"By one shilling a scholar, according to the average number in attendance throughout the year, unless vocal music forms a part of the ordinary course of instruction."

And by the New Code of 1874 the grant on the average attendance of the scholars was altered from 6*s*. to the following sums :—

"(1.) 5*s*.

"(2.) 1*s*. if singing forms a part of the ordinary course of instruction."

This Article remained in the New Codes up to 1881 inclusive.

The New Code of 1882 offered a grant of 1*s*. on the average attendance if singing was taught by note, and 6*d*. if taught by ear. This Article has remained up to the present.

Boys.

Number of Schools in which Boys have been taught Military Drill and Cottage Gardening.

Year ending 31st August	Military Drill. (Introduced by the New Code, 1871.) (No Grants paid.)	CottageGardening. (Introduced by the New Code, 1895.)
1872	926	
1873	1,126	
1874	1,137	
1875	1,001	
1876	1,056	
1877	1,178	
1878	1,245	
1879	1,277	
1880	1,203	
1881	1,172	
1882	1,157	
1883	1,108	
1884	1,165	
1885	1,284	
1886	1,335	
1887	1,387	
1888	1,376	
1889	1,414	
1890	1,414	
1891	1,365	
1892	1,352	
1893	1,346	
1894	1,343	
1895	1,572	1*

* Nine boys earned a 2*s.* grant each.

TABLE showing the NUMBER of DAY SCHOOLS in which GIRLS have been taught COOKERY, LAUNDRY WORK, and DAIRY WORK.

Year ending 31st August	Cookery. (Attendance at Cookery Lessons recognised by New Code of 1875. Grants first paid under the New Code of 1882.)	Laundry Work. (Grants first paid under the New Code of 1890.)	Dairy Work. (Grants first paid under the New Code of 1893.)
1876	29		
1877	125		
1878	178		
1879	223		
1880	276		
1881	299		
1882	347		
1883	420		
1884	541		
1885	715		
1886	812		
1887	921		
1888	1,086		
1889	1,355		
1890	1,554		
1891	1,796	36	
1892	2,113	153	
1893	2,419	213	
1894	2,634	273	1
1895	2,775	411	1

N.B.—The number of girls who have earned grants are given in the following table.

NUMBER of GIRLS in DAY SCHOOLS who have been paid GRANTS for—

Year ending 31st August	Domestic Economy. (A Specific Subject.)		Cookery.	Laundry Work.	Dairy Work.
	Number Examined.	Number Paid.	Number paid.		
1871					
1872	357	*			
1873	600				
1874	844				
1875	1,211				
1876	3,307				
1877	10,919				
1878	24,636				
1879	37,409				
1880	50,797				
1881	55,993				
1882	59,812				
1883	49,037		1,251		
1884	21,458	13,676	7,597		
1885	19,437	12,428	17,754		
1886	19,556	12,879	24,526		
1887	20,716	14,250	30,431		
1888	20,787	14,840	42,159		
1889	22,064	15,765	57,539		
1890	23,094	16,464	66,820		
1991	27,475	19,326	68,291	632	
1892	26,447	19,196	90,794	2,766	
1893	29,210	28,455†	108,192	5,640	
1894	32,922	32,562	122,325	7,238	8
1895	36,239	35,964	134,930	11,720	0

* No particulars of the numbers paid for Domestic Economy between 1872-82, nor for first eight months of 1883. In the four months ending 31st August 1883, 6,090 girls were examined and 3,793 passed.

† By the Code of 1892, the article relating to specific subjects was altered as follows:—

(A.) In the case of schools to which the annual grant falls due before the 31st August 1892 (a grant of) 4*s.* for each scholar reported by the inspector to have passed in any subject.

(B.) In the case of schools to which the annual grant falls due on and after the 31st August 1893 (a grant of) 2*s.* or 3*s.* for each scholar presented in any specific subject. The Department shall decide which, if either, of these sums of 2*s.* and 3*s.* shall be paid after considering the report and recommendation of the Inspector.

NUMBER of SCHOOLS where INSTRUCTION has been given in—

Year ending 31st August	Drawing* (older Scholars).	Manual Instruction.	Science.	Physical Exercises.
1891 - -	6,075	145	420	1,441
1892 - -	17,048	285	513	1,703
1893 - -	17,793	430	557	1,938
1894 - -	18,063	677	573	2,259
1895 - -	18,145	949	632	3,185

* Drawing was made a class subject by the Codes for the years 1885 and 1886, but was removed from the list of such subjects by the Code of 1887. In 1886 it was taught as a class subject in 240 schools, and in 1887 in 505 schools. In 1890 it became an obligatory subject for boys in schools for older scholars, and boys in infant schools and classes were enabled to earn a grant on their average attendance by being taught drawing in place of needlework. Grants for drawing are made by the Science and Art Department.

X.—School Savings Banks and School Libraries.

Year ending 31st August	Number of Public Elementary Day Schools in which have been established	
	Savings Banks. (No Record before 1879.)	School Libraries. (No Record before 1880.)
1879 - -	848	—
1880 - -	1,087	2,092
1881 - -	1,187	2,382
1882 - -	1,376	2,603
1883 - -	1,718	3,046
1884 - -	1,979	3,322
1885 - -	2,046	3,589
1886 - -	2,142	3,842
1887 - -	2,255	4,056
1888 - -	2,429	4,142
1889 - -	2,509	4,311
1890 - -	2,498	4,401
1891 - -	2,629	4,967
1892 - -	6,383*	5,560
1893 - -	8,548	5,832
1894 - -	8,668	6,225
1895 - -	8,410	6,381

* "One remarkable and encouraging fact in connexion with the introduction of free education has been the increase in the number of school savings banks. These have risen in the year from 2,629 to 6,383. We are glad to find that the suggestion made in the Circular which we issued in October 1891 has been so generally adopted. That Circular recommended that advantage should be taken of the opportunity afforded by the relief of parents from the payment of school fees for encouraging the practice of thrift by the establishment of school savings banks."—Report of Committee of Council, 1892-3.

May 1897.

M. E. Sadler.
J. W. Edwards.

English Students in Foreign Training Colleges.

A.—Women Students.

The movement for sending English students to training colleges on the continent is still in its experimental stage, but a few words as to the experience gained by our college up to the present may be of use to others who are considering the advisability of making some experiments in the same direction.

It may be said that no definite conclusions can be formulated as to the success of the scheme, as we have as yet sent only nine students abroad.* But I have been able to visit personally some of the French colleges which now accept English students, to look closely into the arrangements made for them, and to consult with the heads of the colleges as to various questions that naturally arise in the management of the scheme; so that it may be well to set forth the main points requiring consideration before sending any students abroad under this scheme.

The Colleges to which our Students go.

Roughly speaking, each department of France has its *école normale* or training college, which is in most cases recruited solely from the department in which the college is situated. But the Paris college draws students from the provinces as well as from Paris, and in the mountainous and sparsely-populated districts two departments join in one college.

The course of training occupies three years, and the students enter at the age of 16.

Besides these ordinary *écoles normales*, there is the École Normale Supérieure† of Fontenay-aux-Roses near to Paris. Students enter Fontenay with the object of being teachers, not only from the ordinary colleges, but also from the *lycées* or high schools. They must have passed certain examinations before entering.

Openings for English Girls.

1. The most ready way for a foreigner to enter an *école normale* is as *répétitrice* or student teacher. A number of the colleges take English girls in this way. All the classes are thrown open to them; they are expected to teach a little English, but the French are, generally speaking, too good teachers of language to entrust much teaching to those whose knowledge is imperfect; the chief part of the duties performed by the *répétitrice* consists in talking English at certain times to the students.

* *i.e.*, from the Stockwell Training College. Other training colleges have made similar experiments with favourable results. *See* additional note on page 76.

† This college provides the staff of the ordinary training colleges for primary teachers (women).

The *répétitrices* pay about 16*l.* per year for maintenance and lodging, &c. They are most comfortably cared for and considered.

A competitive examination for candidates wishing to fill these posts is held yearly at Newnham College, Cambridge; it is conducted by Miss Williams,* of Paris, and by Miss Gardner, of Newnham.

2. The natural fear entertained by the Education Department in Whitehall lest third year students might become a means of providing cheap teachers for French colleges made it for long impossible to obtain entrance for our students in this way. A kindly concession was, however, made by the French Ministry of Public Instruction, and another means of entrance provided. It was arranged to take certain of our students and to place them very much on the same footing as the French students. Students entering in this way have no special privileges as regards separate rooms, but share the students' dormitories; they also take their share in the domestic work, which is not heavy. They pay about 20*l.* per year. All the classes are thrown open to them, and they are treated with much kindness.

3. But neither of these methods avails to obtain entrance into Fontenay, for no *répétitrice* is taken there, and no ordinary arrangements can open the door, though the fame of the college attracts many foreigners, who live in the village and attend the classes.

We had, however, previously received Fontenay students at Stockwell, and we had an introduction to the directress, Mademoiselle Saffroy, and were fortunate in making a special arrangement with her to receive one or two of our girls into her own house, which forms part of the college. All the classes and college privileges are freely open to our students.

In 1895 we had one student at Fontenay under these special conditions, one at Amiens as an ordinary student, and one in the same way at Arras.

In 1896, when I visited the French colleges at Easter, I had the opportunity of making my own observations and of talking the matter over with the directresses and other experts, and I came to the conclusion that the plan of sending the girls as *répétitrices* was at any rate worth trying.

I may mention that the French students are not only much younger than our own, but they are treated from one point of view very much like children, and the surveillance is very strict. They go very little outside the college even for walks.

I gathered, on the other hand, that as *répétitrices* our students would have much more opportunity of mixing with the college staff, and would share many of their privileges, including the possession of separate rooms, and the liberty of going out freely,

* Miss Williams, President of the Franco-English Guild, 41, Rue Guy Lussac, is the official representative of the French Ministry of Public Instruction for this matter, and will be glad to furnish further information on this subject.

... additional and much-needed exercise in ... opportunity of visiting places of interest, ... acquainted with their surroundings.

... to the Education Department in Whitehall to ... two students as *répétitrices* was acceded to ... Though this departure is regarded entirely in the ... experiment on which we shall carefully report.

... one student at Fontenay; we have another ... *répétitrice*, and another at Arras also as *répétitrice*. ... who spent last year at Arras, is spending this ... as *répétitrice* at Rouen that she may ... additional knowledge and experience; and one student ... at Fontenay last year returned there for an additional ... with the same object. She has since been selected ... *répétitrice*, the Ecole Normale Secondaire at Sèvres.

Plan of Work.

Last year and again this year, the students have worked by ... special syllabus in lieu of Part II., submitted to the Depart... and sanctioned for the purpose. It consists of the history ... French literature of a special period, and of special books.

This year I continued to submit a special scheme of studies, in ... Part I. of a purely professional nature, viz. —

... Primary education in France: its organisation and methods.

... hours.

... selected, and the students ... attention to the study of ... very great advantage for ...

Students' Knowledge.

... knowledge of the ... in

Education Department to England has on her return aroused in the school great enthusiasm for what is English. In one class in which the children had only learned English for a few months they struggled to speak to us and to welcome us, and to tell us they hoped that we were pleased with our visit.

3. I thought that the teaching of psychology at Fontenay was admirable, though not applied, perhaps, to educational methods as we apply it.

4. I think that it is useful to our students to hear how the power of expression is imparted and cultivated. A student is often expected to speak for about five minutes in answer to a question, and sometimes, after preparation, she has to speak for about 20 minutes on some special subject. It struck me, however, that these speeches were often learned by heart, and tended to become stilted and artificial.

5. We have noticed a general widening in the minds of those who have been abroad, and on both sides there has been a breaking down of national prejudice and the promotion of friendly intercourse.

Special Advantages of Fontenay.

I should mention first among the special advantages of Fontenay the numerous and varied educational opportunities offered to the students there, and the kindly help of many kinds given to them by the gifted directress, Mademoiselle Saffroy. The students have been taken to see great dramatic masterpieces at the Comédie Française; they have gone to the Sorbonne on occasions of special interest; they have visited the Salon and many interesting places in Paris.

It may be a matter of interest to mention that no professional training is given at Fontenay, but the course of studies is purely academical; some of the students taking Science and some Arts. As some of the students enter Fontenay from the *lycées*, it is possible to begin teaching work without any professional training whatever, even after spending two years at Fontenay, and another two years in England as *boursière!*

The Selection of Students who go Abroad.

In selecting our candidates we have been guided primarily by the usual considerations which decide us to offer a third year to a student, viz., a certain standard of excellence as regards conduct, attainments, and teaching power. But there are other points to be noted, of great importance as affecting the probable success of the experiment. It is essential that a student who is sent abroad should already possess a fair knowledge of the language, so that she may not spend the year in conquering its initial difficulties; this is a point which must on no account be overlooked. She should have settled principles, and some strength of character that she may steer straight under new

and sometimes difficult, conditions. And she should have good manners; this also is a most essential point for the smooth working of the scheme, and is one on which the heads of the French colleges spoke with considerable emphasis, and with the knowledge derived from actual experience.

I cannot conclude this statement without expressing how many thanks are due to our own Education Department for the great help rendered to us in developing this work, to the French Ministry of Public Instruction for kindly aid and co-operation, and to those among whom our students have gone as strangers for the kindness which they have always received.

LYDIA MANLEY,
Stockwell Training College.

NOTE by Miss WILLIAMS (the Official Representative of the French Ministry of Public Instruction in this matter) on ENGLISH RÉPÉTITRICES in FRENCH TRAINING COLLEGES.

The experiment of placing English student teachers in French training colleges was first tried during the school years of 1893–95. Twenty-three colleges were provided with *répétitrices*. This experiment was sufficiently successful to induce other colleges to ask for *répétitrices*. So far any lady who had sent in an application for a vacant post, accompanied by two or three satisfactory testimonials, had been appointed, but as the number of applicants increased, the need for a personal interview with each candidate and a *vivâ voce* examination became apparent.

The first examination was held, by the kind permission of Mrs. Sidgwick, at Newnham College, Cambridge, in July 1895.

Thirty candidates presented themselves for examination, of whom 20 were passed. Two other examinations were held at Cambridge, in July and in October 1896, at which 34 out of 43 candidates came up to the required standard.

There are at present (March 1897) 38 English and 1 American student teachers in the French training colleges. In October 1896, 48 colleges applied to the Ministry of Public Instruction for English *répétitrices*. It will therefore be seen that the supply of eligible candidates, although steadily increasing, is not yet quite equal to the demand.

Of the students appointed in 1895 and 1896, two came from Girton College, Cambridge, one from Newnham, one from the Victoria University, three from the Welsh University Colleges (Aberystwith and Bangor), one from St. Andrews (N.B.), one from the Victoria College, Belfast, five from the Stockwell Training College, two from Whitelands, one from the Ladies' College, Cheltenham, several from high schools, and the rest—a minority—from private schools.

In 1895 the proportion of Scotch and Irish candidates was remarkably large; the number of English candidates has since increased.

The failure of a certain number of candidates who have presented themselves at Cambridge may be attributed to their insufficient knowledge of their own language and literature. When due allowance had been made for nervousness, it still remained evident that many candidates of 20 and upwards who volunteered to teach their mother tongue to foreigners, could not explain the precise meaning of some common English words, and were not even distantly acquainted with the history of English literature. A good all-round knowledge of English literature and English history is an indispensable qualification for the future *répétitrice*. Ignorance of these subjects on the part of an Englishwoman surprises and disappoints the French teachers in the training colleges, who are for the most part well-read women, already knowing something about the political achievements and literary productions of the Anglo-Saxon race, and eager to learn more.

Some knowledge of French is also very desirable, both for the student's own sake, and for that of her colleagues and pupils. When this experiment was first tried a few heads of colleges imagined that the less French the English student knew the more quickly would the French girls pick up English. Experience showed that on the contrary, when the French girls found they could neither understand the *Anglaise* nor be understood by her, they were inclined to give up all attempts at entering into conversation with her, either in their own language or in hers, a result that was obviously unsatisfactory both for her and for them. Moreover, it was seen that those who knew no French did not realise where a French student's difficulties lie in the study of English, and could not therefore give any efficient help in overcoming them.

Although it is desirable that a *répétitrice* should be well-read in her own language and have a fair knowledge of French, certain moral qualifications and natural gifts are still more indispensable. Not only must her conduct be in all respects irreproachable, but she must be endowed with common sense, tact, suppleness, the power of adapting herself to a new environment and of taking an interest in the school life. In the few cases in which the English *répétitrice* has not been a complete success, her failure must be ascribed quite as much to the want of some of the gifts just enumerated as to any intellectual deficiency. The French teachers and students are, as a rule, disposed to be very sociable and friendly. They like to feel that the foreigner is for the time being one of themselves, and as they have more than once very justly remarked, they can only be of assistance to one another if they are constantly together, leading the same life.

One or two English students have attempted, while in France, to prepare for some English examination. This is a great mistake, as it obliges them to spend several hours of each day alone in their room studying English books, when they ought to be devoting the whole of their spare time to French.

There does not appear to be in any college a desire to take undue advantage of them and to learn English without leaving them time to study French in return. French men or women are always pleased when they see a foreigner trying to learn their language and to become acquainted with a literature of which they are justly proud. In many cases the *répétitrice* has arranged to work with one of the teachers, giving her English lessons and receiving French lessons in exchange. In some colleges "Madame la Directrice" herself devotes two or three hours a week to the instruction of the English girl.

It may interest English readers to know that a *répétitrice*, who is at some distance from Paris, has been invited by one of the teachers, whose home is at Versailles, to go and spend the coming Easter holidays with her. "For," says the teacher, "I "cannot let this English girl go back to England without "showing her our beautiful capital." The writer of this notice frequently receives letters from English *répétitrices* in different parts of France, speaking of the consideration and kindness with which they are treated.

Finally, every Englishwoman who is appointed to one of these posts must remember that the reputation of English women, perhaps even of the whole British nation, in a given district of France, and in certain classes of society, rests with her. She is probably the only representative of the British Empire with whom the majority of her pupils will ever come in contact. If she shows herself to be friendly, helpful, quick to understand their feelings, ready to sympathise with them in their difficulties, careful to avoid all international questions which might be a source of discord, she may be sure that they will form a favourable opinion of the British race, which they will communicate to their future pupils. If, on the other hand, she only succeeds in ruffling them and hurting their feelings, or in merely wearying them, the English nation will have to suffer for it in that particular district in which her influence is felt.

It is satisfactory to know that in the yearly reports sent in to the Ministry of Public Instruction by each *directrice* who has an English *répétitrice* in her college, the moral worth of these English girls has been uniformly recognised, and in several cases allusion has been made to the excellent influence that they have exercised upon the French students.

The fact that the number of colleges which open their doors to English student teachers is increasing every year shows what view the lady principals take of this institution.

The following is a list of the 48 colleges that are now willing to receive English *répétitrices* :—

Department	Town	Department	Town
in which the College is situated.		in which the College is situated.	
Allier - - -	Moulins.	Haute-Loire - -	Le Puy.
Basses-Alpes - -	Digne.	Loiret - -	Orléans.
Ardèche - -	Privas.	Lot - - -	Cahors.
Aveyron - -	Rodez.	Lot-et-Garonne -	Agen.
Bouches-du-Rhône -	Aix.	Lozère - -	Mende.
Calvados - -	Caen.	Maine-et-Loire -	Angers.
Charente - -	Angoulême.	Manche - -	Coutances.
Charente-Inférieure -	La Rochelle.	Nord - - -	Douai.
Cher - - -	Bourges.	Orne - - -	Alençon.
Corrèze - -	Tulle.	Pas-de-Calais -	Arras.
Côtes-du-Nord -	Saint-Brieuc.	Basses-Pyrénées -	Pau.
Dordogne - -	Périgueux.	Rhône - -	Lyon.
Drôme - -	Valence.	Haute-Savoie -	Rumilly.
Eure-et-Loir - -	Chartres.	Seine-Inférieure -	Rouen.
Finistère - -	Quimper.	Seine-et-Oise - -	Versailles.
Gard - - -	Nîmes.	Deux-Sèvres - -	Niort.
Haute-Garonne -	Toulouse.	Somme - -	Amiens.
Gironde - -	Bordeaux.	Tarn - - -	Albi.
Hérault - -	Montpellier.	Tarn-et-Garonne -	Montauban.
Ille-et-Vilaine - -	Rennes.	Var - - -	Draguignan.
Indre - - -	Châteauroux.	Vendée - -	La Roche-sur-Yon.
Indre-et-Loire - -	Tours.		
Landes - -	Mont-de-Marsan.	Vienne - -	Poitiers.
		Haute-Vienne -	Limoges.
Loir-et-Cher - -	Blois.	Yonne - -	Auxerre.

APPENDIX.

The following sketch of the actual experiences of an English *répétitrice* was written for the Franco-English Guild by Miss M. L. Benton, who has held this appointment in three different training colleges in succession ; it may, therefore, be taken as the outcome of an unusually wide experience of the life in the training colleges.

A popular impression exists, I think, in English-speaking countries, that Paris is the best place in which to learn French. Unless one be sufficiently wealthy to command exceptional advantages, I am inclined to think this opinion erroneous. Paris may be the best place for studying art and music, widening general culture, and enjoying life, but I am far from being sure that it offers the best advantages for mastering the French language to persons still incapable of understanding it with ease, of speaking it correctly and fluently, whose knowledge of its literature is limited, and whose chief object in France is an attainment of these ends. My experience from a residence of some weeks in Paris, on my arrival in France, is that life in the capital presents certain drawbacks to serious study. Although I was in a French pension which offered facilities for hearing and speaking the language, I found that I heard English almost continually, the boarders and my acquaintances all being English-speaking people. I heard, too, much bad French from those who, like

myself, were struggling to express themselves in a still unfamiliar tongue. I do not think my case exceptional. There are so many English and American people in Paris that it is very difficult for us foreigners to find an environment exclusively French, a condition of great importance to rapid progress in the language. Again, by the very variety and charm of its countless interests, Paris life is one of continual distraction. Then, too, a long sojourn in Paris is expensive, which is a consideration to people of moderate means.

After I had passed in that beautiful city some weeks of delightful sight-seeing, but of desultory study, a young lady of my acquaintance chanced to say to me one day: "Why don't you try to get a post as "*répétitrice d'Anglais* in an *école normale*." The question aroused my curiosity, for I had never heard of these posts nor even of the *écoles normales*. After making some inquiries, I felt convinced that such a position was just what I wanted, an environment entirely French, where, at little expense, I might remain long enough to acquire a thorough knowledge of the French language. Being a teacher by profession, I was delighted at the idea of seeing a foreign school from so intimate a point of view and of studying its character, its life, and its methods. I applied for a post, and, thanks to the kindness of Miss Williams, soon found myself in new and novel surroundings.

Les écoles normales d'institutrices are girls' schools established by the State for the training of primary teachers. They form a part of the French system of national education. There is one of these schools in almost every department of France. Each school admits a certain number of pupils; 30 is an average number. The pupils range in age from 16 to 20 years, they are chosen by means of a competitive examination open to all, and follow in the school a three-years' course of study, at the end of which those who have successfully passed the necessary examinations receive from the State the *brevet supérieur*, and are forthwith placed as teachers in the various primary posts of the department. The majority of the teachers in the *écoles normales* have been pupils in the Higher Training College of Fontenay-aux-Roses near Paris, and all have passed the necessary examinations for the *professorat* in the normal schools. The programme of studies comprises courses in mathematics, physical and natural science, pedagogy, ethics and psychology, history, French language and literature, one foreign living language,—English or German according to the department—drawing, choral music, and sewing.

I have now spent nearly two and a half years in three different normal schools. I have found among them more general resemblance than difference. The material establishment, the courses of study, and the rules are practically the same in all. Each presents to the individual minor advantages and disadvantages not found in the others. Thus in the school where the material conditions have been the least advantageous, I have found the most congenial social life. Any school may then be taken as a type of all.

The school where I am at present is situated on a height a little out of town where it commands a pleasant view and fine air. A grove near by and the open country round about invite to walk when the weather is fine. I have a pleasant room, comfortably furnished, with an ample allowance of light and sufficient firewood to have a fire all through the cold weather. I eat at the same table with the teachers. The table is good; the food is abundant in quantity, sufficiently varied and well prepared.

Each teacher breakfasts at the hour which suits her convenience; but takes dinner and supper at the same time as the pupils. I have in all respects the same comforts and privileges as the professors.

The girls rise at 5 in summer and 6 in winter. Until half-past 8 o'clock they breakfast, do their light household tasks, and study. Then they have a conference of half-an-hour with Madame la Directrice, after which, until noon, they are in class. From 12 until half-past 1 the time is taken up by dinner and recreation. Lessons and study follow until half-past 7, interrupted only by half-an-hour for lunch and recrea-

tion. After supper the girls dance or chat until a quarter to 9, the hour for retiring. In some schools the teachers remain in the pupils' hall during recreation time. Here they usually pass this time in the dining-room of Madame la Directrice, in general conversation, in sewing, or reading. Sometimes Madame la Directrice reads aloud. Such hours are profitable for the *répétitrice*. On Thursdays and Sundays the order of work is interrupted. The pupils take a walk in the afternoon accompanied by one of the teachers, or, on Sundays, they may go out with their parents.

The *répétitrice* can hardly expect much social life. With the exception of one or two school festivals during the course of the school year, there are no evening parties, and to have social relations in town would be the exception rather than the rule. In this connexion I should like to mention the consideration which I have received in one town from Monsieur l'Inspecteur d'Académie, a scholar well versed in English literature, who, with his wife, brightened my stay in their city by occasional invitations to their house, where I had the pleasure not only of seeing a charming French home but of enjoying its elevated conversation and cordial hospitality. In general, however, the *répétitrice* can scarcely count on social relations other than with the teachers of the school. I have found the teachers for the most part cultivated women, of serious and earnest character, simple in their dress and tastes. Pleasant walks and talks in the society of some of them will count among my best recollections of France.

In religious matters I find myself entirely free. The normal schools are unsectarian, and the teaching is moral and secular.

The duties of the post are not arduous. The regular English teacher is a French lady who comes twice a week and gives an hour to each of the three classes. My work is to second her instruction and to give practice in conversation. Once I had the maximum of 10 hours' teaching a week. In one school I had six, and at present I have eight. I have one hour a week of serious work with each class for which the pupils prepare in advance. This time is variously employed. Sometimes the girls learn English selections by heart, sometimes they write little English compositions or translations, again we talk about the subject of their lessons, or read and chat in English. With the seniors I am reading the Vicar of Wakefield, which is the work required for the *brevet supérieur*. They are expected at each lesson to relate in their own words the story of the previous lesson. Three hours a week are passed in half-hour walks. I talk English to the girls, ask them questions, help them in their answers and encourage them to speak English as much as they can. Sometimes we chat about the things which we see, sometimes they tell fairy stories or some pretty tale which they have read. The remaining two hours are devoted to the *école annexe*, the primary practising school. I have never had the slightest difficulty in discipline, but, on the contrary, I have found young French girls docile and polite, eager to learn about the customs of other lands and considerate for the stranger. There are no duties of supervision, and aside from these eight hours I am free to come and go, and dispose of my time as I see fit.

In exchange for this teaching the *répétitrice* has the privilege of being present at any and as many lessons of the school as she desires. Naturally I have found those in French grammar, literature, and history, the most profitable for my purpose. I would call attention to the lessons in the critical reading of authors as especially valuable. By wisely planning one's time, especially if one can remain two years, one may have the opportunity of following a very satisfactory course of French literature from early times to our own days, especial attention being given to the classical authors of the 17th century. It is no small convenience for these studies and readings to have the well-stocked school library close at hand, and to be able to use it freely.

An advantage equal, and perhaps even greater than that of hearing lessons in French, is that of being in an *entirely* French environment. No more kind English friend to prop one's ignorance or encourage one's

indolence to express one's self in a foreign idiom! Not only does one hear French continually, but one is forced to use it at every moment. This foreign sequestration, so to speak, soon renders the language living and real in every detail of life. The French one hears is excellent. The teachers speak correctly, and often with eloquence, and from so many persons one certainly may acquire a richer vocabulary and become familiar with a more varied use of the idiom than it would be possible to get from any one teacher, however learned.

The greatest disadvantage is the lack of methodical aid in one's study. This being the case it is well to know the elements of French before coming, and to be able to understand somewhat, in order to profit immediately by the lessons and conversation which one hears. All are generally very kind about correcting mistakes and answering questions. In addition sometimes one can arrange for an exchange of lessons with some teacher, or sometimes some professor is willing to correct exercises, or even to undertake the general direction of one's work.

In summing up let me say that I have greatly appreciated the advantages which these schools offer. My experience has shown that the cost of living is about one-fourth of that for equal accommodation at Paris, while incidental expenses are much lessened; and that the advantages for French have been greater. As a teacher I have appreciated this intimate study of French methods, impossible to acquire from any cursory visit. I shall carry away, besides, many a recollection of kindness, more than one pleasant friendship, and a deepened sense of the human sympathy underlying all differences of land and language.

M.L.B.

English Students in Foreign Training Colleges.

B. Men Students.

1. Travelling studentships in English training colleges are a particular form of the "third year course," out of which they have developed. In old days no student was allowed to remain for more than two years in training, but, some six years ago, on a suggestion made by Mr. Barnett, then principal of the Borough Road College, permission was granted to extend the course of training for elementary teachers from two years to three in cases of exceptional merit. On a further suggestion from Mr. Barnett, leave was in 1893 given to send students abroad during such a third year of training. Authority to do so is given by the Education Department in Article 120 of the Code as follows :— Origin of travelling studentships in English training colleges.

> An additional year's training may be allowed on the application of the authorities of the college proposing to admit the student to such training. The consent of the Department will only be given in the case of students of special merit, for whom special educational facilities are offered. Such additional year's training may, with the like application and consent, be taken in whole or in part at the college itself or elsewhere.

2. Students thus sent "elsewhere" are still *in statu pupillari*, under the direction of their college authorities. The selection of suitable men, the choice of their destination, the limitation of a field of inquiry for them, lie in the first instance with the college, but are subject to revision by the Department. Status of a travelling student in regard to his college and to the Education Department.

The sum of money allowed for their expenses is similarly settled; the initiative lies with the college. Probably no two colleges will make quite the same proposal. If approved by the Department, these expenses will be met, in the usual proportion granted for current expenses in training colleges, by public money. In regard, also, to the course of study assigned to travelling students, encouragement is given (*see* Syllabus for Men, Third Year) to the college authorities to suggest programmes adapted to their particular powers. But whatever their curriculum of *general* study, the Department reserves safeguards which ensure that the *specific* object of training college work shall not be overlooked. It is laid down as an indispensable condition in the case of travelling students, as in that of men who spend a third year in their own colleges, that they shall, at the close of their course, teach a class in the presence of Her Majesty's Inspector, and undergo an examination in "the art, theory, and history of teaching."

3. The conditions under which such students go out are thus in marked contrast with the system by which ex-students of the École Normale Supérieure at St. Cloud are despatched to England. The initiative and responsibility of the college are in the French parallel case much less important. The French Contrast with French "boursiers" from the École Normale Supé-

rieure at St. Cloud.

"boursiers" come for the special purpose of preparing to be teachers of English in French training colleges. Their almost exclusive duty is to "soak in" English conversation and literature with a view to a severe examination in the language. They remain, as a rule, for two years, not one. The English travelling student, on the other hand, is preparing for the usual work of a teacher in an elementary school. He does not go abroad primarily to learn a foreign tongue, but to extend his professional experience. It may sometimes occur that he afterwards obtains a tutorship in a training college, but, if so, this is an accidental, not an essential, consequence of his stay abroad. He is, in all respects but locality, an ordinary "student of the third year."

Experience of the Borough Road College, Isleworth.

4. The ample initiative left to individual training colleges may be expected to lead in time to experiments of great variety and value. Meanwhile (at least up to the beginning of the academical year 1896–97), the experience of the Borough Road College is all that there is to go upon among the residential colleges for men. Six students have been sent out:—

Jan. 1894 to Oct. 1894.	W. P. B. Read, to Rouen -	and for a few weeks to St. Cloud.
	W. G. Sleight, to Caen -	
Oct. 1895 to Jan. 1895.	S. Sawyer, to Caen - -	and for a few weeks to St. Cloud.
	E. George, to Rouen - -	
Oct. 1896 (unfinished).	J. W. Muckle, to Jena.	
	G. N. Wheeldon, to Weimar.	

Choice of men.

5. Only men of marked ability and trustworthiness can make use of the advantages offered by such a course; it requires considerable quickness and versatility of mind, as well as steadiness of character and "*savoir faire*" to get much good out of an eight months' residence abroad, especially for men labouring under the special disadvantages of a previous training as pupil-teachers. It has not been thought advisable by the college to send more than two in any one year.

Regulations under which students have been sent from Borough Road Coll

6. It has been said that the Education Department prescribes that travelling students, like others, shall—

(i) give proof at the end of the year of continued study of the practice and theory of teaching;

(ii) take a course of general reading either—

(α) as prescribed in the Department's syllabus;

(β) as suggested in each case by the college and approved by the Department;

(γ) as laid down by some British university for an advanced examination.

In the case of home Triarians* the Department further lays down that a minimum of 75 hours must be spent in the

* This convenient college term may be permitted in a college memorandum. "Triarian" for "student of the third year" is so much nimbler in use that it may ask for official sanction.

practising school. For travelling students, permission has been hitherto given to substitute for this a systematic course of observation of method and management in foreign schools. All arrangement of details has been left with the college authorities, who, naturally, are best acquainted with the tastes and powers of the particular students. The principal has discussed with the students, both before they start and afterwards by correspondence, the special points to be most profitably observed. In the first week of each month he receives from them a report on an approved subject, such as "How is it attempted to train French children for Civic Duty?" "Discipline in French Primary Schools," "Methods of teaching the Elements of French Literature," "School Furniture and Apparatus," "Physical Training," "Drawing in German Primary Schools," &c., &c. On the receipt of a satisfactory report, the principal remits the allowance for the expenses of the ensuing month. In the case of students in France, all the reports after the first two or three have been sent *in French as well as in English*. German continuous composition cannot be looked for until near the end of the student's stay.*

Relation of travelling students to foreign training colleges.

7. The college has also arranged that each travelling student shall always be in direct communication with the principal of a training college in his neighbourhood, and shall be responsible, in a general way, to him. The students are thus saved from making mistakes as to the district which they may choose to lodge in, and so forth. Negotiations for this and similar purposes had at first to be conducted entirely by the English college authority. Lately they have been largely undertaken by the Education Department itself, with the help of the Foreign Office and Her Majesty's representatives abroad. This is not only a great relief to the college, but it enables students to obtain permission to visit all kinds of educational institutions with a fullness of privilege which, on the continent, is accorded only to visitors with an official passport. But it is still highly advisable, when the requisite ministerial sanctions have been obtained, for the principal to write personally to the head of the college to which his student is about to be attached. The utmost courtesy and kindness have been shown in welcoming and assisting English students, in throwing open college privileges of all kinds to them, and, where it has seemed desirable, in procuring permission for them to board and lodge in college. In France this last privilege has been allowed them at a cost of 50 francs per mensem—a much lower figure, considering the excellence of the quarters and the fare, than is possible out of college. Such residence "en qualité d'élève libre interne payant," has proved extremely advantageous in the early months of a student's sojourn. It throws him among friends and sympathisers, while

* Experience shows that it is worth while to direct students to send home their reports in uniform MS. books, "*cahiers*," bound in paper covers. These can subsequently be bound together and placed for reference in the college library.

it cuts him off effectually from the "English spoken" of hotels and from resident English folk. But for the last quarter of their stay it has been thought advisable to give them more freedom, and to encourage them to see as much as possible of the country, as well as of colleges and schools. In any case it is well not to send students anywhere *together*. The plunge into foreign life and language is a much more invigorating shock, if it be taken by oneself alone.

Results of the foregoing regulations.

8. Results, so far, have been most satisfactory. The students' monthly reports embodying their own notes on foreign school-methods have been quite admirably done. They show that an unforced and genuine interest has been felt by the men themselves,—a natural consequence of the lively and amusing change from old routine at home to the fresh sights and sounds of a foreign schoolroom. It is not merely that they learn new ways of doing things, but that the process of comparison brings out the real significance and value of what they had learned before. Highly generalised criticism is not to be expected or desired from them; but accurate and detailed observation and description make exercises of the greatest possible utility. Their reports furnish what one often looks for in vain elsewhere, a painstaking collection of the "phenomena" of foreign education, *a careful statement of facts actually observed.** The task of writing these reports has not prevented success in their own studies. Of the four whose time abroad has, at the date of writing, been completed, the first two took the Final B.A. Examination, the third the Intermediate Examination at the University of London, while the fourth, who had obtained his B.A. degree at the close of his second year in college, took the Cambridge University Syndicate Examination in the Theory of Education. In each case, on the results of reading done during residence abroad, they were successful in passing their examinations. Further, they were placed in the first division by the Education Department in respect of their technical work for "Part I. of the Syllabus."

More general advantages.

9. In addition to this "professional" profit, they have, of course, reaped the usual advantages of foreign travel, which, but for their special opportunity, would most likely have remained unknown to them. They have enjoyed themselves vastly. They have made astonishing progress with foreign languages. They have formed friendships and established correspondences which seem likely to be lasting. Three at least (out of the four above-mentioned) have already, during short holidays, repeated their visit to France.

Comparative attractions of France and Germany as destinations for travelling students.

10. Experience at Borough Road College thus makes strongly for a continuance of the practice of sending out picked students as "attachés" to foreign training colleges. It is too soon to form a clear opinion as to whether France or Germany is the better country to which to send them. France has many advantages: it is nearer; the best of our students have a very

* A specimen page is appended to this Memorandum.

fair acquaintance with its language to start with, and, on their return, can put increased knowledge of it to profitable use in elementary schools, central classes for pupil teachers, or training colleges. On the other hand, they know no German to begin with, and require to be drilled, at odd times, in its elements before going out. When they come back, they can hardly find a market, in the world of primary education, for knowledge of German, and their acquisition of it is only too likely to slip from them for lack of use. The distance to Germany is great, and the cost of living there is apparently rather higher than in French country towns.

But, in compensation, all the evidence yet to hand goes to show that the Germans have more to teach our students in school matters than the French.

If France be selected, it will be found advisable to send men to places where, in addition to an École Normale, there is a provincial "Académie" with university lectures by men of repute.

Should the practice of sending students abroad become more common, the Department's aid would have to be invoked to see that no two colleges were sending men to the same place. For it would spoil much of the good effect if students were in pairs or groups instead of being flung separately into the ways and the speech of a foreign country.

H. L. WITHERS.

Isleworth, 21st April 1897.

APPENDIX TO MR. WITHERS' MEMORANDUM.

The following paper, by Mr. George Wheeldon, is given as an illustration of the monthly reports made by the English students abroad to their college authorities at home. The original document is accompanied by a number of carefully drawn plans and sections which are not here reproduced.

REPORT on the TEACHING of GEOGRAPHY in the ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS of SAXE-WEIMAR.

Soon after my arrival in Weimar, in taking country walks I was often surprised to meet a class and a teacher. Upon inquiry I was told that they were having their geography lesson. I determined to attend some of these lessons, and my personal observations have been supplemented by the teachers kindly lending me their teaching notes of the whole course so that I might the more readily follow the progress of these lessons. Before beginning the subject it is necessary to speak of the system underlying German primary education. In Saxe-Weimar the head

masters and teachers are given free hands. The Government issues, not a code of work, but simply the subjects (names only) which are to be taught, and the number of hours to be given to each subject, in each class, each week. The following is the "Stundenausmass" in vogue at present:—

	Class IV. Standard I.	Class III. Standards II., III.	Class II. Standards IV., V.	Class I. Standards VI., VII., VIII.
I. Religion	$\frac{4}{2}$	$\frac{2}{2}$	4	$4\frac{1}{2}$
II. History	—	—	—	2
III. Geography	$\frac{4}{2}$	$3+\frac{2}{2}$	3	2
IV. Science	—	—	2	3
V. German	$\frac{12}{2}$	6	6	6
VI. Arithmetic	$\frac{4}{2}$	4	4	3
VII. Mensuration	—	—	1	2
VIII. Drawing	—	—	2	2
IX. Singing	$\frac{2}{2}$	$\frac{4}{2}$	2	2
X. Writing	$\frac{3}{2}$	$2+\frac{2}{2}$	2	2
XI. Drill	—	$\frac{2}{2}$	$1\frac{1}{2}$	
Hours per week	18	23	$27\frac{1}{2}$	30

Upon receiving this the head master makes his time-table and the syllabus of work for the year, split up into the syllabus of work for each month. This he sends to the Government for approval. The result of this is that each school not only has a different time-table, but, to a certain extent, a different syllabus of work. The master of a school is solely responsible for the school. I myself went to the superintendent of this district and asked for permission to visit the schools in the district. His answer was, "I cannot give you permission. The head masters of "the separate schools alone have that power. I cannot interfere with "their work." Thus the head master is left entirely to himself. (From the above it will also be seen that the Code is not overcrowded with subjects.) In the same way the head master gives his teachers a free hand. He gives them the syllabus for the month and they follow their own course and methods. While in the school building they must adhere to the time-table, but if a lesson can be better given in the country, or in a museum, they give it there, and are not limited to time. The school year consists of 10 months. The fifth month is totally given up to the revision of the work of the first four months, and the tenth month to the work of the last four months. At the end of the year the class is examined by the head master and teachers forming an examination board. Occasionally the school is visited by an Inspector or "Oberschulrat." He, in conjunction with the teachers and master, examines the boys, not to find out what they know, but to test their intelligence. After school every Friday the teachers and master meet together to discuss the school work. If a complaint is to be made it is made then, and the work of each teacher is judged, not only by the head master, but by his colleagues. I suggested that the system was open to abuse by some teachers. The answer was, that owing to this weekly meeting every teacher was responsible to some extent for the whole school, hence it was to everyone's benefit to get rid of such a teacher. All schools, private or not, are under the Government. A teacher once dismissed can never teach again anywhere in Germany. He cannot even open a small private school, and he loses his pension. Hence a teacher who neglects his work is never met with. This partly accounts for the success in the method which I am about to explain. In the German system also a teacher is rarely responsible for a class. He will, perhaps, teach two or three subjects to all classes. The Germans say it is impossible to find a teacher who is equally capable of taking all

subjects, so he should teach the subjects best suited to him. Hence one teacher will take the whole of the following geographical course in the school.

The geography course is divided into three subjects. In Standard I. it takes the name of "*Anschauung*." In Standards II.—V. it is called "*Heimatskunde*," and only in Standards VI. and VII. does it receive its real name, "*Erdkunde*." Firstly I will deal with *Anschauung*.

This corresponds, as nearly as any course in the German schools, to our object lesson course. But both in the choice of subjects and in the method of dealing with them there is a great difference. The course of lessons for the year is as follows:—

1st month.—The schoolroom. Naming of objects. Speaking of different colours. Size of objects. Form of objects. Position (over, under, right, left, &c.). Walls. Ceiling. Floor. Stove. The living room. The times of day. The swallow.

2nd month.—The way to the playground. The turf and bushes. Observation of work in the garden beds. The goat. The dove. Observations of form and position of the sun at different times. Observations of shadows. Observation of the foliage of the lilac, lime, and oak trees.

3rd month.—The garden beds, flowers, weeds, &c. Rose bush. Apple tree. The bee.

4th month.—The drill ground. The chestnut. The lilac bloom. The forms of the moon. Clouds. Rain. Rainbow.

5th month.—Revision.

6th month.—The school house from the outside. The back of the same. The goose. The cock. A farmhouse. Migration of swallows. The window. Why one begins to see his own breath. The frequence of fogs. Leaves of trees.

7th month.—The front of the schoolhouse. The playground in winter. The Christmas tree. The hare. The hunter. Observations on the decrease of day and the increase of night. The frozen window glass. Snow. Snowflakes.

8th month.—The schoolhouse inside. The living-house. The kitchen. The cellar. The cat. The dog.

9th month.—The horse. The donkey. Snowbells. Observations on increase of day and decrease of night. Increase of warmth.

10th month.—Revision.

When it is taken into account that the school year here begins after the Easter vacation, it will be seen how well the above lessons are arranged to suit the time of the year. The two objects aimed at by the teacher are:—

(1.) To train the eye of the child so as to accurately observe, and to observe as much as possible in one glance.

(2.) To train the child to explain in words what he has seen. This last seems to be the part to which most attention is paid.

In the English object lesson we first of all train the observation by having objects to illustrate our lesson, and requiring the children to observe these; then we deduce facts which the children do not observe, and also increase the knowledge by inquiring into the uses, properties, &c. This method is employed in Germany, but not in the object lesson. It is in the reading lesson, *e.g.*, when reading of a raven, that such a method would be followed. In the Anschauung lesson nothing is told the child, nothing is taught him by the teacher. The child tells the teacher everything. Not only must he tell the teacher everything he has seen, but he must tell it in properly connected and grammatical sentences. For instance, to such a question as, "What shall we speak about to-day?" not even the youngest boy in the school would be allowed to answer, "About snow." His answer must be, "To-day we will speak about the snow." This is not only the case in these lessons, but in all lessons, and the success is seen in the upper classes where the boys are able to keep up lengthy discussions, a point which has been mentioned in former reports, and on which too much emphasis cannot be laid since it seems to be the one point in which the German boy far excels the English boy.

As has been said, the Anschauung lessons consist totally of what the boys themselves have observed. As an example, take the lesson on snow. The teacher says: To-day we will speak about snow. What shall we speak about? Who has seen snow? Tell me something about snow. A question which would be condemned in an English object lesson as admitting of too many answers, but which is the German teacher's most effective question. The little ones are all eager to tell their teacher what they know, or what they have seen, or what adventures they have had. This is all the teacher requires. The children attempt to relate all they have observed, and this they must do in grammatical language, the teacher sometimes spending several minutes over the correction of one sentence. Again, in such a question the children have no hint as to the form their answer must take, whereas in such a question as "What "is the colour of snow?" the boy knows his answer must be, "The "colour of snow is ——." The point which the teacher considers important he himself repeats, makes perhaps half the class also repeat it, and then has it repeated several times simultaneously. Although the children have been conversing with the teacher for half an hour, and he has been correcting their sentences and, of course, imperfect or wrong observations, yet all the children have to repeat several times and are expected to remember is this: "The snow falls in snowflakes and lies "upon the ground. Now it lies very high and the streets have to be "cleaned by means of the snow-plough." Again, in a lesson on frost, the matter to be remembered was: "The windows are frozen. There are "flowers on the window, but they are ice flowers. It is cold outside but "warm in the room. The mud in the streets which was soft is now "hard. The water in Seminar Strasse is now ice." Of course the results of the same lessons to the English Standard I. would be of a far different character. The English object lesson has as its aim the training of several faculties, and also the increase of knowledge. The German object lesson has the training of the observing faculty only as its aim. The question then arises why such a course of object lessons as given above should be classed with the geography course. The answer is that geography in Germany is taught, or the greater part of it, by personal observation only, hence it is necessary that this faculty of the children should have had some little training before they are called upon to make a really practical use of it. In all classes up to the 6th Standard, lessons are set apart simply for observations on general subjects. Of course with the higher standards the observations must be more particular and fuller, but the same method is followed. The teacher tells nothing, the boys tell everything. These lessons are taken when the revisions of the separate excursions are finished, and when, because of the weather or other circumstances, the boys cannot take a fresh excursion. The teacher says (perhaps on Monday) between now and next Thursday make all the observations you can upon the post office, the railway, &c. This part of the syllabus will be referred to for the remainder of this report as the "Observation Part." When the child advances into Standard II. he first begins to talk about and construct plans. Firstly the plan of his own schoolroom. The method followed is much the same as in England. The boy finds how many strides it takes to go along one side of the room. A large blackboard is laid horizontally. He is told to draw a line the same length. He finds he cannot do it. Hence he must take one little step, or one doll's step, to represent each of his. This is his first idea of drawing plans to scale. This is then developed until the sides of the room are properly measured by the boys, and a plan to scale drawn on the large blackboard. Then the blackboard is exchanged for one half the size, and the boys learn that the scale must be even smaller. From the schoolroom they proceed to plans of each separate schoolrom, and finally, at the end of the fifth month, these separate plans are fitted together and a plan of the whole school obtained. Meanwhile observation lessons have been taken on: occupations of people; clouds; sun; increase and decrease of day and night; fogs; rain; snow; common domestic animals, and ordinary vegetables. From the school the children proceed to the plan of the town. Two points must be kept in remembrance: that all

drawings on the blackboards, as on paper, are done by the children, and that all drawings are kept horizontal. No plan of anything is drawn until the children have made observations under the supervision of the teacher. Hence before a plan of the town can be drawn the children must have investigated every street. Their first excursion is through the south-west part of the town; that is the part around their school. They are taught how to use a long tape measure and a measuring chain. In the first journey only the directions and lengths of the streets are observed. The children return and in the next lessons revise in the drill-ground, playground, and on the blackboard, their journey. (A full detailed account of these revisions is given in dealing with Standards IV. and V. work.) In the next journey other streets are taken, but the journey through the streets already observed is not wasted. In passing through these streets the buildings, stone used, the statutes, fountains, and any other matters calling for attention are observed. In each lesson a few fresh streets are observed, and plans of these made on return. When the whole town has been thus observed, and the separate plans made, these are fitted together and a plan of the whole town obtained. This is completed at the close of the year in Standard III. With Standard IV. begins the geography of the Thüringer district, the district in which the town stands. This is taught by means of excursions under the supervision of the teacher.

I.—*Excursion to Felsenkellerhöhe.*

This is a hill just outside the town. On the first excursion thither only the way there and back is observed, together with the direction of the streets, their length and condition. In a lesson preceding this excursion the chief points of the compass have been taught. Nothing is pointed out by the teacher which should thrust itself directly upon the observation of the children. The observation begins at the entrance to the school, in this case in Seminar Strasse. First the direction in which the goal lies is considered. Then the Seminar Strasse is measured exactly by the boys. This length is impressed in every way possible on the eyes of the children, because with this other distances must be compared. At every bend in the way the children have to declare the alteration in direction, and to assess the length of the street lying before them, and, at first, long streets are divided into easy portions. Then follows the ascertaining of the exact length by the use of the measuring tape, with whose use the boys were made acquainted when observing the town itself. On this first journey the following observations are made:—"The way at first goes "30 metres in Seminar Strasse to the south. Then diagonally across "Kaiserin Augusta St. 25 m. On the south side of the same street we "go 22 m. to the west; then through Preller Strasse 250 m. to the "south. After 110 m. of this street have been travelled we find it cut "through at right angles by the 14 m. West St. Then we go through "Junker St. 50 m. to the E.; then 200 m. S. Now we are on the south "boundary of the town." This is all spoken by the boys to the teacher as they go along, for, until now, it is only a revision of the last standard's work. The houses, width, &c. of the streets are noticed, and if planted with trees these are observed and named. The same observations are then proceeded with until the children arrive at the Felsenkellerhöhe. Another way back is used, and this observed in the same way.

Revision.—This method of revision is employed in all the lessons on geography in Standards II., III., IV., and V. The boys in the next lesson are taken out into the drill-ground, a large gravel stretch outside the school. Here the journey is revised on a small scale. The boys are told to go to the north of the ground, and a stone is placed there to indicate the school. A boy is called out to start the journey. He walks some steps southwards, speaking thus as he goes: "We went from the school through "the Seminar St. to the south." He has not said the distance, and the other boys ask, "How far." He then repeats, putting in 30 m., and then proceeds, "We cut diagonally across Kaiserin Augusta St., which is 25 m. broad." He then goes again some steps, and while he turns westwards he

says, "Then we went on the south side of the street to the west." The teacher asks the other boys, How far? where to? The boy walking is frequently changed, and a lively interest kept up in this way until the whole journey has been thus revised. Such revision seems to have a double use. It impresses more firmly and quickly the journey itself, and it gives the boys the practical illustration that a long journey can be represented on a small space. This revision is taken several times, but not always exactly the same. At one time only the directions, at another the lengths, at another the appearance, at another comparisons of the streets are taken. After this revision comes the drawing of the plans. Since these are to be as a preparation for reading maps, or better for learning them, much time is expended upon them, and four different plans are drawn.

(*a.*) *Plan on the Drill-place.*—In the 3rd Standard the boys have learned that it is generally impossible to draw a plan the correct size, and that for 100 ordinary steps they must take 100 small steps or 5 or 10 ordinary steps. Now a plan must be drawn in exact relation to the real proportions. With the aid of the teacher, the boys reckon what measure must be taken for every metre of the actual road if the plan must go on the drill place, which is 36 m. long and 32 m. broad. The measuring out of this and the necessary calculating awakens an interest in the boys. Finally, it is found that 4 cm. for 1 m. can be taken. Then, during a revision such as is mentioned above, the boys scratch out in the gravel of the drill place the plan of the streets, every street being in exact proportion to the actual street.

(*b.*) *Plan on the Playground.*—This is also gravel, and here the boys learn that everywhere there is not so much space as in the drill place, this being only 13 m. long and 12 m. broad. Hence they must take 1 cm. for every metre. The plan is then drawn as before.

(*c.*) *Plan on a Horizontally laid Blackboard.*—Here only 1 mm. for 1 metre can be taken. The drawing is kept horizontal, not hanging, so that it may still keep its relation to the two former plans and also to the earth itself. Now for the first time the plan is to assume the hanging position. To obtain a clear conception of a hanging plan is difficult, and is considered as a difficulty which young children can never really surmount; hence it is not until the boys are in the 4th Standard that the plan is put in a perpendicular position. When the plan is lying, its separate parts coincide in position with the real object represented. But in this position, the teacher explains, it is impossible for all to see it, so it is hung up. But how is it to be hung? After repeated exercises and questions, with the board in all positions, the boys come to the conclusion that every point of the compass must be marked. The boys are aided to this conclusion because they know personally every point on the plan and its position with regard to the points of the compass. They see a street or place which they know is in the north (*e.g.*, school itself) first at the top, then the side, then underneath the board, but they remain convinced that the school itself is in the north; hence that must be marked. The teacher explains the amount of trouble that would mean, and asks the boys for some way out of the difficulty. After a few questions, they suggest that the north shall always be in one place, and then the teacher tells them that it has been agreed always to have the north nearest to the ceiling and the south nearest to the floor. No freedom of expression must be allowed. No boy must say "at the top" for north, or that a street "goes up." They know that the school is in the north, that Felsenkellerhöhe is in the south, and also that from the school to the latter place they had a steep climb the whole way. Therefore they are well aware that the north is not always "up." When this is fixed, the next plan is proceeded with, and is—

(*d.*) *Plan in the Exercise Books.*—In every case the proportion must be calculated by the boys themselves, and they must state the same in the drawing, and be so practised that they may clearly know the meaning of such notations as 1 : 500 when they meet them later in the maps. The drawing of this plan is very difficult, as the children up to this standard have been taught no drawing, but they seem to take such an interest in it

that the difficulty is quickly overcome. On the plan when finished the "dotted" streets represent the streets with trees, and from their observations the children must remember, not only which streets have trees, but whether they have them on both sides or only on one side. Also important buildings have to be observed, and their positions with regard to the streets.

II.—*Second Excursion to Felsenkellerhöhe.*

This time the journey is made as quickly as possible. If anything crops up which is not likely to offer again, then observations are taken, and also the teacher takes this opportunity of strengthening any boys who have shown that they have not fully grasped the matter of the former excursion. This time the view is observed. The boys see that their view is obscured by the sky appearing to touch the earth, and that this forms a circle around them, and that they stand about the middle of this circle. They are told that this is called the "horizon" and the bounding lines "horizontal lines." The points of the compass are then fixed, and the boys observe all the hills and villages which are visible, their direction, and their relative distances from themselves. The hills and villages are named. Their chief difficulty now is the judging of the distances. It follows that those points which lie at equal distances from them should be placed together. A prominent building, the church in Weimar, serves as a suitable starting point. The boys know that from there to where they stand takes 25 minutes; therefore, as the crow flies, it will take less—a quarter of an hour. They now seek places which lie at the same distance from them, then all places at double, treble, four times, and five times the distance, grouping them together with the aid of the teacher. Their positions with regard to the points of the compass are then revised, and they return once more to the school.

Revision.—In the next lesson, in the schoolroom, all the places observed, their names, positions, distances, &c. are revised. In the next lesson the boys go into the "drill-place," and stand in the centre, and a circle as large as the drill-place is drawn around them. This is the circle of the horizon, and is five times as far away as the town church. The quarter hours are then marked off by drawing other circles within. The lesson is then revised as before, and the places marked by stones. The same is then done in the playground; the plan is then drawn on the horizontal board; this is then hung, and, finally, a plan is drawn in the exercise books.

III.—*Third Excursion to Felsenkellerhöhe.*

From their previous observations the boys have come to the conclusion that the land is not even, but consists of risings and sinkings. This time these risings and sinkings are observed. It is seen by the boys that the earth on three sides of them, east, north, and west, slopes downwards, but afterwards rises up to the circle of the horizon. The teacher then gives the names to these sinkings and risings. The boys then name the different valleys and the different hills and mountains which they see. Thus they learn what is meant by hill, mountain, and valley. Now the different heights of the hills must be observed. This is done by comparing them with the point on which they stand, which is 50 metres high—just as high as the church tower in Weimar. The teacher explains that, if a wire were fastened from the top of the church tower to where they stand, it would form a horizontal line, or that, if a man should make a tunnel horizontally from the foot of the church tower to their standpoint, and then placed a tower there, the weathercock would just appear above the ground. Then the different hills and valleys are compared. Of the three valleys, the Ilmthal, Lottenthal, and Asbachthal, the teacher asks which is the deepest, and educes from them that they are certain that the Ilmthal is the deepest because the Lotte and Asbach both flow into the Ilm, and water always flows downhill.

Revision.—Great stress is laid upon the frequent comparison of the different risings, so that the children may recognise that mountains are

high, hills only low risings. They are only allowed to name them very slowly and carefully, so that they may not use merely empty words. When this is done they are taken out into the playground. In one corner a large heap of sand is kept. From this the children make the circle of the horizon, and then build up the different hills and mountains in their proper positions. There are plenty of small shovels in the playground, and this part of the lesson is a source of great pleasure to the children, as all children like to dig and build in the sand. This first relief map is very crude, but during their play hours the children may always be seen working at it on their own account. In the schoolroom a plan showing the three valleys and the risings on each side is drawn.

IV.—*Fourth Journey to Felsenkellerhöhe.*

This time the separate parts of the different risings and sinkings will be considered. First the Galgen Hill is considered, which rises almost to a point. The teacher tells the children that the top, just as in a man, is called the head, and that the words summit and peak are also used. Then examining the Ettersberg the children find the name would not suit. After the extent of this mountain has been compared to the leg of an animal the boys discover the proper name to be ridge. Further, the Kaserneberg has a wide stretching flat top which is a plateau. Then all the other hills are compared with these and the right names given to their tops. Then follows observations of the sides, which are compared with the roofs of houses and their names, as slope, declivity, &c., given, and also the names of the slopes, according to the points of the compass to which they are turned, as south slope, &c. The valleys are now observed, after the name foot has been given to the bottom of the mountain. The Ilmthal can be seen for several miles, and the children have to name the single heights which form the west and east sides, and which slope. For example the boys will say "At Taubach the east wall " of the valley is formed by the western slope of Lehnstedte Höhe," and the west side of the valley by the east slope of the Belvedere Mountains. By this means the teacher finds whether the boys have remembered the names of the hills, and also what has been told them about the slopes. In the observation of the Ilmthal at Weimar, the boys see that the whole floor of the valley is covered by the town, and that only on the east side is there a side to the valley existing, while on the west side such fails because the Lotte, Asbach, and Ilm meet. These last-named valleys appear then to the children as one broad valley, because the separating rising ground is so low as not to be observable. Before leaving the valleys the boys will draw on a piece of paper a simple drawing representing the side view of one of the hills.

Revision.—Now the crude sand relief in the playground is of great use. With its help the teacher can see if each boy has grasped the terms for the separate parts of the hills. The children now improve this relief by giving the mountains something like their proper shape. Then the teacher asks such questions as: show me the foot of the Kaserneberg, the summit of F. K., its east slope; the west slope of Ettersberg, its south foot. Tell me the name of the highest part of Ettersberg; show it me, &c., &c. Now the time has come when the child can be introduced to a properly finished paste relief map of the same. The boys had taken the drawing of the side view of one of the hills, one which had slopes in every direction. The boys now have to draw a view from above. This is very difficult and has to be carefully handled. The hill is built up in sand with thin layers of wood between at equal distances from each other, and in a horizontal position. The boys notice that seen from the side the "Layer lines" are straight and parallel and at equal distances. Hence they can easily draw the elevation. But when seen from above, the smaller "lines" are crowded together. Then a blackboard is placed near the hill and a side view of the hill drawn exactly the same size as the sand model. The board is now brought quite near to the hill and the appearance drawn as seen from above. The size of the drawing shall again correspond with that of the sand hill. The necessary measure-

ments for the extension may be taken from the side view already on the blackboard. The children soon understand that the foot line of the side view is the measurement of the longest line from the view from above. If now it is required to draw the view from above exactly under the side view only the special points of the foot, and the separate "layer lines" marked by drawing perpendiculars need be used, for we know how far the necessary lines from left to right in the view from above should extend. So, by these perpendiculars, the points are found between which the separate "layer lines" must lie. When this is thoroughly understood, then, under the direction of the teacher, the projection is drawn on the board by the boys and shaded in. The projection is then drawn in the exercise books. Thus the boys have learned to read the mountains from the map because from their own drawing and observation they see that the highest part of the mountain is in the projection darkest. Therefore they say "the higher the darker."

V.—*Excursion to the Ilm.*

The other excursions have required about 1½ hrs. This requires 2 hours. First the hollow in which the water flows is spoken about and is given the name bed. The sides of the bed are called banks. The banks are joined by bridges. It has been mentioned above that the boys have to do a large amount of talking. Both during and after the journey, any boy may be called upon to give a full account of what has been observed. On this journey the teacher said to a boy "relate to me all that we have done. The boy replied "We have noticed that the water of the Ilm flows along, " and that it flows from north to south. It flows in a hollow which is " like a great gutter. This gutter formed hollow in which the Ilm flows " is called its bed, and the bed has two borders which are called its banks. " The Ilm has a left and a right bank. If I stand on a bridge and look " in the direction in which the water flows, I have on my left hand the " left bank, and on my right hand the right bank. These names of the " banks do not change. If I turn round and look in the other direction, " then I have on my left hand the right bank, and on my right hand the " left bank." In all lessons every boy is supposed to be able to relate all that has been taught. The teacher then impresses on the boys that the greater part of Weimar lies on the left bank of the Ilm. A bridge is crossed and then the children are again practised in naming the banks and the valley slopes and the east valley slope distinguished as the right valley slope. A spring is then observed and its name given. This forms a small pool or lake, and then flows away as a small brook, and empties itself into a larger brook. By this means source and mouth are taught, and the difference between brook and river. The teacher then asks questions requiring the following answers: "The water flows along because the " bed is not horizontal, but slopes. We see that the slope is not always " the same because sometimes the water is almost standing still and others " rushing along." The different water plants are then noticed and the boys return.

Revision.—This is taken often. Water is poured in the school yard, observations made, and the river formed, compared and contrasted with the Ilm. Finally properly worded definitions are given for the different terms, bed, river, &c.

VI.—*Excursion to Ober Weimar, then up the Ilm valley to Mellingen.*

For this excursion half a day is required, and morning is generally chosen as the most suitable time. The children take a little lunch with them. At first they have a steep climb, and at the top of this revise the view which they first had from the Felsenkellerhöhe. The children quickly get accustomed to the new standpoint. They then descend to Oberweimar, and in passing through this village the occupations of the inhabitants are spoken about. Near Oberweimar an island is observed in the Ilm, and also the silting up of the river here which often has to be cleared. The boys now go in a south-easterly direction on the right bank of the Ilm. The position of every place passed through or seen is

fixed with regard to the banks of the river. The children's attention is called to all alterations in the valley, and also the meadows, flowers, and grasses are observed. A short observation of the Taubach quarry gives not only an insight into the different stratas of earth, but teaches also that a part of the inhabitants of the place find occupation in the quarry. Coming to Mellingen it is noticed that there is a large market square suitable for the yearly May markets, and that the inhabitants are occupied mostly with field work and cattle rearing. Further up stream a sharp bend of the Ilm is noticed from N.E. to N.W., caused by the south slope of Lehnstedter Höhe. Then the mountain at Mellingen is noticed. The boys easily observe that it is higher than the Felsenkellerhöhe. The teacher tells them its height is 80 metres. On the top he asks the question: "How many metres are we higher up than when on Felsenkellerhöhe?" Then the answer given is 30 metres, but the teacher directs the attention to the fact that Mellingen is higher than Weimar, and although the mountain is only 80 metres above Mellingen, yet it is 100 metres above Weimar. Then the pumping-house of the waterworks is observed. Further up valley the children see that the river is closely shut in between high mountains, and this creates an interest in the next excursion, which is in this part of the valley. On the way back the working of two large watermills is observed. In the revision on the sand relief in the playground the Ilm valley from Weimar to Mellingen will be worked out more exactly. Then this sand relief is compared with a proper plaster relief map. Afterwards the plans, as before, are drawn in the children's exercise books.

VII.—*Excursion viâ Belvedere to the Part of the Valley above Mellingen.*

For this excursion a whole day is required, and the children are advised to bring the requisite food and in addition money for a glass of beer. On the way are observed the villages passed, their positions, the occupations of the people, the direction and character of the journey, the trees, birds, flowers, grasses, &c. Anything which has an historical connexion is pointed out to the children, and its history related by the boys themselves if any should know it, by the teacher if the boys are ignorant of it. Particular notice is taken of the Ilm Looking Glass, where the water is brought almost to a standstill. By this the boys see clearly that the fall of the river is not always the same. It is also noticed that some slopes of the mountains are covered with fields and flowers, while others are almost barren, and the reasons for this are educed by the teacher. In the journey a brook is noticed which in summer is empty but in winter a rushing torrent. By means of this the teacher educes the results of the melting of snow. Where the brook meets with the mountain it has washed out a hole in the rock in which a man can stand upright. This gives an opportunity for a lesson upon erosion, and from the form of the mountain the teacher shows the boys what enormous masses have been washed away in former times, and that pieces of overhanging rocks have been broken off. In this way an interesting lesson is given on the action of running water. This is further illustrated by the fact that in the centre of the bed of the brook is a bush 6 feet high, which is so bent in the direction of the stream that half of its roots on the one side are uncovered and above ground. Then the journey is resumed over mountains which have been named according to the principal trees with which they are covered. The revision is then taken as before. After the boys have built up the new region in sand, and the comparison has been made with the plaster model, the steepness of the different mountains is taken into consideration. Finally the boys come to the conclusion that the nearer the different strata lie to one another the steeper the slope, and the further the different strata lie from one another the easier the slope.

VIII.—*Excursion down the Ilm to Tiefurt.*

This journey takes an afternoon. On crossing Sternbrucke opportunity is afforded to observe an island in the Ilm, and in the east

arm of the river a small island is deposited which, which, when the river runs high, is entirely washed away. The viaduct of the railway with its six arches is observed, and is calculated to be the same height as the church tower, 50 m. East from this the right valley wall is thickly wooded, and here the width of the valley is just wide enough to allow the river to pass through. Then the valley gradually broadens out again until at Tiefurt it is covered with large meadows. Next is observed the reasons for the different windings of the Ilm at Weimar, and the different variations of the river from a straight line to the north-east. Again opportunity offers for noticing the different "fall" of the river. The village of Tiefurt with its castle and park are then observed. The castle and the memorial stones in its park give opportunities for the relation of tales of the time of Karl August and Anna Amalia. The important horse-shoe-formed river bend in the park causes the boys to notice that on the inside of the bend, where the fall is less than on the outside, masses of sand and rubble are deposited. The teacher points out to the boys that the castle garden has been laid out on the slope of the mountain on which it has, because this slope is protected from the cold winds. On the journey back the trees are particularly observed. Revision is taken as before, with the improvement of the sand relief and addition of the new part.

IX.—*Observation of the Ettersberg from Tiefurt.*

Time required two hours. The children journey to Tiefurt, revising their last lesson, and also what has been previously learned about the Ettersberg, as distance, height, slope, &c. Before returning the boys sketch the side view on a piece of paper, marking the position of places on the observable portion. On their return they examine the trees, flowers, grasses, &c.

X.—*Excursion over Ettersberg to Barenhugel.*

One afternoon is required for this excursion. On the way over the slope of the Ettersberg the last lesson is revised. The villages passed through are again observed as before. The greatest profit of this excursion is in the view. It gives a view of the Thüringer district for a radius of 10 miles. The Ilm valley can be followed for 15 miles. The lesson is then a repetition of that on the Felsenkellerhöhe, but with a greater area. Places, towns, hills, mountains are named, their positions and distances calculated, as also the heights of the mountains. On the return journey trees, &c., are again observed. Then follows revision, formation in sand, and drawing as before.

XI.—*Excursion viâ Gabernsdorf and Daasdorf over the Ettersberg to Hothelstedter Ecker.*

This is the last excursion, and takes in a view of the whole Thüringer district. The time required is one whole day. The matter this time comprises so much that the boys must make notes and sketches. The following is the matter observed. The way leads first westwards in the Asbach Valley. On the right the Great Ettersberg forms the left valley wall, on the left rises the low valley wall already observed. This separates the valley of the Asbach and Lotte, and is given the name of watershed. The road then leads through Gabernsdorf and then Daasdorf. Till now the incline has not been great, but yet the view is widened. From the top the whole Thüringer district is seen. The towns of Eisenach, Gotha, Erfurt, Weimar, Jena, Gera, &c., all the mountains, Hohensonne, &c., the valleys, the passes or gaps, &c. Chains and groups of mountains are distinguished and compared. All are named and their positions fixed. Copious notes and sketches are made by the boys. On the home journey the children collect specimens of all the different flowers and plants so that they may be studied afterwards. The revision follows by the building up of different parts in sand until the whole Thüringer district is modelled. Then follows the comparison and classification of places

according to position, size, occupation of inhabitants, &c. Afterwards lessons are given on the uses of different woods, on birds, flowers, plants, &c. Finally come lessons on the making of plaster moulds, physical and political charts. During these excursions observations have been made upon the weather, and during the year a teacher has the opportunity of showing the boys that mountains act as "weather partings." A storm is often seen raging on one side of the Ettersberg, while on the other the sun is shining. This course of excursions has taken two years, that is, it finishes when the boy is ready to enter Standard VI. By this means a boy has thoroughly thrashed out the district surrounding his home, both with regard to its geography and animal and plant world. A map is not simply a paper with a picture, but represents to him a "further home." He sees mountains, hills, rivers, &c., and can read off the physical geography of a country as from a book. Geography is not a dry study, or a dry naming of countries, rivers, boundaries, towns, &c., but a subject of which he recognises the usefulness and necessity, and in which he is always interested. A map represents to him something similar to his own home, with mountains, trees, meadows, birds, animals, men, factories, &c.

Thus, when a German boy is entering the 6th Standard, his knowledge of geography may be summed up as consisting of the knowledge of the construction and use of a plan, the use of a map, the district in which he lives with its animal and plant world. But if the aim of education in our primary schools is the training of the faculties so that the boy may be able to make full use of them afterwards, then the German boy is by the above means better educated than the English. If a German and an English boy of the 6th Standard were sent out together for an hour's walk, it is no exaggeration to say that the German would know five times as much as the English boy, and would also be able to say what he knew much better than the English boy. In all lessons at least half the time is spent in training the boys to relate what has been taught them or what they have seen. In a course such as the above much depends upon the teacher. He must have full and proper control over his class, and must be able to detect what is worth spending time over and what is not. Again, it will be said that such a course of instruction is not possible in all schools owing to their position. But this does not apply to the first three years. If the school is in a large town, a part of that town may be investigated and the plans drawn. The objects will be attained, namely, to train the observation, to learn how to make a plan, its uses and its relation to the original places, and the creating of an interest in and liking for the subject. Again, in the next two years a knowledge of the country around may be obtained and also a knowledge of our animal and plant world. An English boy can name practically no trees, plants, and birds which he sees; a German boy will name all. What definitions cannot be taught in these journeys would have to be taught from models. Many of the simpler definitions could be taught from a visit to a neighbouring park. In most cases probably the two chief wants would be mountains or high hills and a river valley, two things of which many English boys have no conception whatever. But surely within 20 or 30 miles of each school such could be found. A day's excursion in each would give the boys a splendid conception of such, especially when under the control of a capable teacher. This would mean a day each year. If this were general, arrangements might be made with the railway companies for exceedingly cheap rates, and every scholar might be prevailed upon to save ½*d.* a week for such a purpose. But if a large amount of knowledge is demanded at the sacrifice of intelligence, such a course is impossible. The Ilm, of which such use is made, is a stream about the width of an ordinary canal and about 6 inches deep. The hills themselves vary from 150 to 800 feet high. The difficulty in teaching geography is to make the subject interesting, and this the German method certainly does.

Besides the above course of excursion, there is the observation part of the syllabus. The boys have to observe of their own accord: Shadows, length, position, &c. at different times of the day. The sun, position,

rising, setting, midday, &c. Temperature variations, &c. Winds. Appearances of the sky. Rain, snow, hail, fog, frost, thaw, rainbows, thunderstorms. The moon, its phases, motions, &c. The stars, the chief constellations, stars which rise and set, stars which do not rise. Planets. Venus as morning and evening stars. Jupiter. As has been said before, in these lessons the boys tell the teacher everything, he only corrects when they are wrong. In the observations on the stars, he tells them which they are to observe and where to find it.

When the German boy enters the 6th Standard, he passes from the geography of the district in which he lives to that of Egypt. The reason for this is that in the 6th Standard the boys begin to learn history, but they learn only ancient history, and their first lesson is upon the Egyptians. The number of facts now taught to the German boy concerning the geography of the world compared with those taught to the English boy is between one-sixth and one-eighth. The method now employed is one tended to keep up the intense interest in geography which has been aroused by the course followed up to the present. In the first lesson on a country a physical map is placed before the children with only the most important names marked. The teacher then tells a boy to stand up and tell him something about the country; although he, the boy, has never perhaps seen a map of the country before, he begins at the north and reads off the physical build almost as if he were reading a book upon the same. The teacher of one of the classes here says that an English inspector once heard him give such a lesson on the physical features of Asia: the inspector considered it was a revision of several previous lessons. After the lesson he congratulated the teacher and asked him how many weeks it had taken him to teach the physical features so thoroughly. Upon receiving the answer that that was the first lesson, he would not believe it, although the teacher offered to take for him any other country he liked to name. The maps are plainly printed, and the most important names can be seen by the boys in the class. Very little political geography is taken. Again, only the most important towns, their position, and the occupation of the inhabitants. Then the teacher tells the boys all the interesting facts he can come across, and thus the interest in geography is kept up. One of the classes had lately been taking the British Isles. Every time I went in the school I had boys coming to me asking if such and such facts were true which their teacher had told them. If, for example, there was a bridge in England which was like a large tube, and through which the trains run? If there was an island on the west coast of England in which the cats had no tails? And many more questions of the same kind. This will illustrate the interest of the lads in the subject, and also the style of lessons which are given. In a lesson on political Africa, the teacher finished in one hour Morocco, Algeria, Tunis, Tripolis, and the German colonies. The whole blackboard summary of the lesson was written by the boys. Any fact which the teacher wishes to be remembered, he calls upon a boy to write upon the board. After the above were finally finished, the following was the blackboard summary:—

Morocco, N.W. Africa. Mountainous. Partly fruitful. Despotic Government. Capital, Morocco.

Algeria, E. of Morocco. Fruitful. Winter vegetables for Europe (French). Capital, Algiers.

Tunis, E. of Algiers. Fruitful. Winter vegetables for Europe. Despotic.

Tripolis, E. of Tunis. Fruitful. Winter vegetables for Europe. Despotic.

That was all that was taught; no towns of any description were mentioned in Tunis and Tripolis, only the facts that they were despotic governments. The remainder of the time was spent by the teacher in relating stories of the slavery, the people, their customs, &c. During the last five minutes of the lesson the boys copy the above summary in their exercise books and learn it. With regard to the German colony, the teacher said it was about twice the size of Germany, but was of no practical use, and was then passing on to Egypt when the time was up.

The following is the syllabus for Standard VI., and from its extent it is obvious that only a superficial knowledge can be given :—

1st Month.—Egypt, Palestine, Syria.
2nd Month.—Asia Minor, Greece.
3rd Month.—Form of the Earth. Size of the same. Latitude and longitude. Planisphere. Rotation of the earth. Consequences thereof.
4th Month.—Revolution of the earth around the sun. Position of the earth's axis. The seasons. The zones. The moon as a satellite of the earth. Darkness. The starry sky. The fixed stars. Grouping according to their brilliancy. The sun. The most important constellations. The planets.
5th Month.—Revision.
6th Month.—Central Asia, Turania, Irania, Armenia, Caucasia, Mesopotamia.
7th Month.—Arabia, Italy, the Iberian Peninsula.
8th Month.—Africa, with conclusion of Egypt. Survey of the whole world.
9th Month.—The British Islands. Scandinavia.
10th Month.—Revision.

The astronomical geography is taught by reading from a reading book, and the teacher illustrates by means of the necessary apparatus. Besides the necessary charts and globes, the schools are provided with a tellurium, telescope, and stereoscope.

In Standard VII. the boys begin to learn German history, and so the geography returns to Europe for the first few months. Even with regard to his own country a boy does not know so much as an English boy does. A teacher asking a 7th Standard boy the population of Germany, was told 2,000,000, and no boy could give him the correct answer.

The following is the syllabus for Standard VII. :—

1st Month.—Instruction with the globe. Form of the earth. Latitude and longitude. Roumania, Hungary, Galicia.
2nd Month.—Austria and the valley of the Danube. Germany (general).
3rd Month.—District of the Rhine from Basel to Mayence. Wurtemberg, Bayern, Hesse, Baden, South Germany.
4th Month.—Prussia, Luxemberg, France, Western Alps.
5th Month.—Revision.
6th Month.—Balkan Peninsula. The Alps. Russia.
7th Month.—Switzerland. Asia.
8th Month.—Australia. South America.
9th Month.—Middle and North America. Glance over Europe.
10th Month.—Revision.

With such an extended course it is impossible for many facts to be learned, but many of the facts at present taught to the English boy might be left for reference in reference books.

The results of such a course as the above are: (1) That an intense interest in the subject has been awakened, and the boys look forward to their geography lessons with pleasure. (2) The observation has been trained and with it the scope of the imagination, so that in his lessons the boy has a real picture before his eyes, and the words of the teacher do not convey to him empty ideas. (3) This imagination is of great help to him in history. (4) He is in a splendid position to appreciate the literature of his country. Vivid descriptions bring before his eyes real landscapes. He knows personally every tree, animal, and bird mentioned. Every physical land feature mentioned calls him back to some similar feature which he has seen near home. (5) The geography lessons have been made a splendid means for cultivating the æsthetic tastes of the boys.

In the above report most of the names of insignificant villages, &c., have been suppressed, but it has been necessary, in order to make the separate journeys clear, to use some names which will be altogether strange, but in those cases plans containing the places will be found, and references have been made to the same.

Brushwork in an Elementary School (with illustrations) by Mr. Seth Coward, Headmaster of the Alma Road Board School, London.

General introduction.

In order to facilitate the comprehension of the working of the system I preface this article with a brief sketch of the environment in which the experiment has been tried.

School and staff.

The "Alma" school is one of the well-designed, well-equipped schools of the London School Board. It was opened in 1885, providing in the boys' department accommodation for 300 scholars in six rooms. It has a staff of head-master and five assistants, all trained and fully certificated. This staff, although not originally selected with particular reference to qualifications for teaching drawing, is now, as a consequence of special study and organised work, much above the usual average in this respect.

Class of scholar. and Curriculum.

The boys are the children of workmen engaged in the leather and other industries of the neighbourhood or in the City. The attendance for some years past has been very good; the average attendance being at present 92 per cent. of the number on the rolls. There is no Standard I. The ages range from 7½ to 13½ years. The curriculum is the usual one, except that chemistry and electricity are taught experimentally.

Previous work of the school in drawing.

Since the opening of the school much attention has been paid to teaching drawing; two lessons per week of one hour each, together with one lesson per week of from 30 to 40 minutes on map drawing and subsidiary work, have been given continuously. The feeling had, however, been growing for years that the work of the Syllabus of the Science and Art Department did not evoke the highest powers of the boys, and that it did not create or foster the love of art.

Adoption of the new Syllabus.

Consequently on the issue by the Department in December, 1895, of the New Alternative Syllabus, it was at once carefully scrutinised, and I came to the conclusion that it met many of my views. After consultation with my staff, I decided to try it. The School Management Committee of the Board, on the advice of its expert in drawing, Mr. A. Wilkinson, sanctioned the experiment. Some delay, however, occurred in the supply of material, which was not received till the beginning of June, 1896. Meanwhile, such of the work as could be done with the appliances in the school was vigorously taken up and faith in the possibilities of the system grew day by day.

All stages of the work taken up at once throughout the school.

The work of the Syllabus might have been introduced gradually, by taking it for the first year in Standards I. and II. only, or by taking it throughout the school, but limiting the work in the first year to that of the first four Standards. The Syllabus

further provides that brushwork need not be taken before Standard III. After careful consideration of my resources, I decided to at once take up the system throughout the school in its entirety and to carry on the brush and chalk work at all stages *pari passu*. So that the system has been tried as a whole in a school to which any boy in the neighbourhood may legally claim admission while there is room, and each boy in the school has been taught.

All boys taught.

An analysis of the New Syllabus shows that its essential feature is the formation of "patterns and repeats" in which "the natural forms of plants and animals may be broadly "treated as motives of ornament and employed to fill spaces "used in decoration." Such designs are to be executed with chalk (used at arm's length), brush and water colours, in a free, bold manner. For the purposes of such designs "large leaves, "and parts of plants may be drawn from in outline." "Geo-"metrical forms may be utilised and regarded as the foundation "for ornamental arrangements of natural objects, animals, "plants, and the like."

Analysis of the Syllabus.

The skill thus obtained may be applied to drawing from the round and the flat, and to reproduction from memory.

There is added to the above a course of geometrical drawing for all the Standards.

Thus it is sought to form a habit of accurately observing form and colour; to develop the faculty of forming new combinations; to obtain such a control of the hand that these conceptions can be freely and accurately reproduced with chalk and brush.

Aim of the Syllabus.

In other words, it is a scheme for teaching *design*, and this interpretation has dominated the practical working out of the Syllabus.

The Syllabus a scheme for teaching *Design*.

At the very outset the difficulty presented itself of working the Syllabus with the appliances of an elementary school intended for the usual curriculum. This difficulty was most felt in adapting the ordinary desks for drawing at arm's length with chalk. After some trials the arrangement was devised of inserting a piece of millboard $22'' \times 12'' \times \frac{1}{4}''$ in the slot provided in the desks for slates. It can be used either for drawing on directly or for attaching paper with clips. This has been found to answer well.

Difficulty of adapting usual fittings of school.

Arrangement for drawing at arm's length with chalk.

It was found that brown paper of various shades supplied an excellent ground for the chalk work. A selection of chalks of six colours was made, and put into a small box for each scholar.

Paper.

Chalks.

For the brushwork each boy was provided with three sable brushes, which wear and work extremely well. A larger camel's hair brush is now added. A palette and a water bottle have been found sufficient for each desk occupied by two boys. In the three lower classes coloured inks have been used. These are mixed by the teachers. In the upper classes a box of colours is supplied to each desk. Each boy in these classes mixes his own colours. The usual white plain paper is used generally;

Apparatus for brushwork.

Brushes.

Colours.

sometimes a lesson is given on the brown paper; and occasionally on paper ruled with $\frac{1}{8}''$ squares, especially in the lower classes. Paper.

The size of the classes, ranging from 50 to 70, has determined that, in the main, the teaching must be given to the class as a whole. The blackboard has had to play a very prominent part. Each elementary form, such as the oval, has been carefully demonstrated on the board. As soon as the class has attained some mastery of the particular form—whether produced by chalk or brush—practice is obtained by allowing each scholar to form a simple arrangement in different positions with different colours. Then half and quarter of the oval are similarly taught, arranged and combined with one another. In the case of the brush forms, the form which is being demonstrated is drawn on the board on a large scale with coloured chalks, and also drawn in colour with a large demonstration brush on a sheet of paper fastened to the blackboard. When forms are thus known they are also arranged or combined by the teacher on the board. The class then form similar but not identical combinations. Elements and combinations are copied, not as the end but as the beginning of the scholar's own work; all copying is preparatory for, and subsidiary to, reproduction in designs.

Method and spirit of the teaching.

Blackboard work a prominent feature of the teaching.

Copying, a preparation for design.

In the upper classes some studies have been made from Nature; leaves, plants, and flowers have been copied and then employed in designs. The school is, however, badly situated for obtaining specimens for this purpose. Bermondsey is also entirely without art galleries of any kind. There is no institution whatsoever available for the boys. A party of 50 visited by special free order the Arts and Crafts Exhibition, and a few have been also to South Kensington Museum and the National Gallery. All these places are, however, both by distance and cost, quite out of reach of the children. The scholars are consequently almost entirely dependent on the school for inspiration as well as teaching.

Studies from Nature.

No good models accessible.

Even under these conditions the teacher recognises to the full that his chief function is to guide the spontaneous activity of the child; to stimulate and direct the creative faculty; to foster the belief in each boy that he possesses power, and to encourage him to put it forth freely. The child is allowed the utmost play for his inventive faculty.

Function of teacher.

Errors in the combinations of form and colour occur, of course; many of them are corrected almost instinctively by the boy himself. One of the most potent means employed by the teacher for the correction of errors, has been the exhibition on the walls of the class-room of any drawing which commends itself to his judgment. This is often a provisional approval; but the exhibition to-day serves as a stimulus for better work to-morrow. Soon all the available space was filled, and then to gain a place a drawing had to be better than one of the same kind already there.

Correction of errors.

Exhibition of drawings on school walls.

Enthusiasm of teachers.

This, however, is only one out of many ways in which the magnetic influence of enthusiastic teachers has been exercised; and I am unable to speak too highly of the enthusiastic work and hearty co-operation of my staff, Messrs. Morgan, Umlauff, Stotter, Rankin, and Smerdon.

"Class" not "Standard."

I may state here that although I have retained the word "Standard," as it is the one employed in the Syllabus, I have entirely abandoned the usual meaning of the word and substituted that of "class." A boy remains in a lower class till he is fit for a higher; when fit he is promoted, promotions being made quarterly.

Examples.

I now add specimens of the work of each class, exemplifying the results of the application of the principles and methods described above.

STANDARD II. (Age 8.)

STANDARD III. (Age 11.)

STANDARD IV. (Age 9.)

STANDARD V. (Age 12.)

STANDARD VI. (Age 12.)

STANDARD VII. (Age 12.)

STANDARD VII. (Age 13.)

APPLICATION OF DESIGN TO PANEL OF PARTITION.

I now make a few observations on the effect of the work both on the drawing and on the general work of the school.

Effects of the system on the drawing.

In the drawing it has evoked in the boys such an intense interest as I had never seen displayed before. The study has been from the beginning taken up with the utmost enthusiasm. The boys were charmed to be able to use chalk, but they have been fascinated with the brush, and the deftness with which they manipulate it is marvellous; there is almost an entire absence of colour in the wrong place; a spotted or smudged drawing is scarcely ever seen; they take an immense pleasure and rapidly acquire skill and taste, in mixing and harmonising colours.

Opens the eye to see colour.

One of the most important effects of the system is that it opens the eyes of the boys to the world of colour in which they live. It is with the greatest pleasure that I find a group of boys in the playground admiring the glories of a sunset or watching the alternations of light and shade on the adjoining buildings.

Cultivates a habit of observation.

It has cultivated a habit of observation and the desire to reproduce what they see; some carry note books in which they sketch a leaf or anything which they can embody in their designs.

Stimulates home work.

Not a lesson is given in school which is not again studied at home. The amount of work done voluntarily at home is surprising; it is no uncommon thing to find half or two-thirds of the class bringing home work. This, too, in spite of the difficulty of obtaining materials; paper is supplied at school; chalks are readily bought; but brushes and colours are beyond the reach of many.

Affects the dullest as well as the brightest.

This work appeals to the dullest as well as the brightest; some boys who for years showed scarcely any signs of intelligence have developed rapidly and have produced designs which compare favourably with the best work of their class.

Extends to the geometry.

The geometrical drawing is also done with a zest, intelligence, and skill which were never known before.

Supplies an artistic basis for technical training.

It gives the lad a power of rapid, accurate sketching, which is of great service to him in other studies. It also supplies an artistic and scientific basis for true technical training, and produces at the same time the spirit which alone will make the training effectual.

Work of practical value.

Employers who have seen the work say that it gives the power which they need, but do not find in their workmen. Competent judges assert that many of the designs have a commercial value and are worth embodiment in permanent materials.

Effects of system felt in other work.

Nor has the effect of this work been confined to the drawing; the consciousness of power which a boy obtains in producing a good design overflows into all his other work.

Gives a consciousness of power.

Some timid, hesitating lads have been simply transformed intellectually under its influence. Such a boy no longer does merely what he is told; he works because he enjoys it, because he feels that by work he can achieve something.

Cultivates the imagination.

Produces the artist's spirit in work.

It affords what has been lacking in our elementary system of education, an effective means of cultivating the imagination, both artistic and scientific. It trains the eye to behold beauty, the mind to conceive beauty, and the hand to produce it. It fills a lad with the spirit of the artist, delighting in his work instead of that of the workman performing his task.

For these reasons alone, apart from its intrinsic value, the system is well worth a place in the curriculum of any school.

SETH COWARD,
Head Master.

The "Alma" School, Bermondsey, S.E.,
March 8th, 1897.

Note.—Examples of the drawing can be seen by appointment at the school (near Spa Road Station, South-Eastern Railway), any day during school hours, and the work in progress on Tuesdays and Thursdays from 3.30 to 4.30. A collection of examples may also be seen at the Library of the Education Department, 43, Parliament Street, London, S.W.

The A B C of Drawing: An Inquiry into the Principles underlying Instruction in the Elements of Drawing.

[The writer of the following paper has had many years' experience as a teacher of drawing to pupils of different ages. In this paper he has attempted to state some of the principles underlying instruction in the elements of drawing, which he feels that he has reached in the course of his practice.]

That drawing should be a means of education all agree, but this agreement is one of words only. There are different, even opposite, views of education, and the same term is used for both. A candidate at the last election of the London School Board said in his address he objected to "cram in education"; but education cannot be "crammed in," it must be "drawn out." The new alternative syllabus for drawing makes education its first aim. Some attempt must therefore be made to indicate what is meant by it.

Education means, to most teachers, the drawing out of power; but there is more: to draw out power is not always education. Teachers can develop power without educating. Other creatures besides children have powers capable of culture. A canary may be taught to fire a gun, an elephant to ride a bicycle. Power is drawn out apparently; but is it education? The animal is made to imitate the acts of man, but these acts are not the expression of its own real nature; they are foreign to it, imposed by the arts of higher beings. Such imitations are of no use to the animal; they satisfy no desire or aspiration; they are beyond its appreciation and capacity, for they are not the spontaneous expression of its own self—mere forms and hollow shams, for the essential thought and spirit, of which they should be the expression, they have not. Much of our so-called education is little better than this "circus training," as Pestalozzi called it. The child's own powers are not drawn out. We impose on it the words and acts of higher beings. We do not appeal to its true nature, and develop that. We ignore its free spontaneous actions and expressions. "All true, all educative instruction "must be drawn out of the child," said Pestalozzi; he adds, "*and be germinated within it.*" The creative power within, the source of both thought and expression, is essentially human, distinguishing man from the higher animals. The elephant has given no hint that a wish to ride bicycles has germinated within it. No bird has invented even a bow and arrow. Animals make for themselves no machines, no tools. Tools and machines are expressions of man's wish and thought, spontaneously germinated within him and developed from him, for man is born a creator; he is impelled by innate power, by his humanity, to desire, to think, and to express; he is impelled to create means of expression, such as language, by using

first the organs of his own body, and then materials outside himself for the same purpose. We know what man is by these expressions of himself: what is in him by that which comes out of him: what we may yet expect by what has been achieved. All language and all art has been created by him, have evolved from him. A parrot imitates speech, but cannot create it. The elephant rides, but makes no machines. Expression and thought are one; both originate in the same creative spirit. From one growing point in plants all the different organs and structures originate. From within man's own self both the idea and its means of expression germinate. Knowledge and skill begin and develope by like processes from the same creative centre. The germs of all human power, knowledge, and ability are in every child by virtue of its humanity. Expression separated from thought may draw out some sort of power; but the words or acts of higher beings may be imitated without educating those creative powers which are essentially human.

Expression and education are closely allied, but there can be no expression without ideas. One teacher tells us, in a work on wood carving—in many ways good—that "children and people "in the country have no ideas. We must give them some." Teachers must give the patterns. Students can carve the wood. In this way the essentials of education are separated, and the humanity, the creativeness, taken out of it. May we not call it "circus training"? It is common enough in schools. Children may deal with words, not with things; with copies, not with creations. The educator should be able to draw out ideas. Socrates said this was his vocation; it is that of the educator. One of the easiest of mental processes is invention. The mind, ever active, is always combining materials it has gained. On this self-active power of mind the geography, history, arithmetic, and most other school subjects rest. Words only are given, the child is told; the child has really to supply the ideas by combining the knowledge it has previously gained through its senses. The secondary knowledge of the school is the product of imagination, of the mind's own activity. If the child has not seen a mountain, it has seen a hill; if not a hill, a hillock or molehill, or some inequality of surface. On such primary sense perception all knowledge rests. The fundamental activity of mind is twofold. It receives impressions from without, and it also combines them into new products. The school does not try to train mental faculty directly, except perhaps verbal memory; it regards neither observation nor imagination as such; if they are trained, it is indirectly. A teacher who held that he was developing that constructive power which lies at the base of all thought by setting children to invent arrangements of lines or colours would be generally considered a faddist. But what is Euclid? Highest mental discipline. Why? and what are its materials, and the mental processes involved? A trainer of teachers said recently:—We must draw out from the child of course, but we must first put into it what we want to

draw out. We must first tell it. We must give it the knowledge. How would it know anything about geography or history if we did not? We may tell, but we know not what materials it has in store, nor the combination it makes. We cannot see the real pattern made by itself with geographical or literary materials given it. The teacher's words may be echoed back, but these echoes do not express the child's thought. Let it convert its own thought into form; we shall see then what the child thinks better. There will be plains for hills. "Ely's stately fane" will be on the sea shore, without the fane. "You have "been reading L'Allegro; make an illustration of any line, "say, 'By hedgerow elms on hillocks green.'" With surprise you are asked, "What are hillocks and hedgerow elms?" and in the illustrations both will be absent. Words can dispense with ideas, but words cannot be changed into form without ideas. Thought and expression must both be the child's; from one end of the sequence to the other all must be the child's own doing. That essentially human power, whether we call it germination or creation, is the centre and source of all expression. To it all nature without radiates; from it all expression extends. Power can only be gained by following its natural course. Only by entering into the child's own life, thought, and method can we really educate it.

We may not know fully how thoughts originate or develop. We do know this: the materials for thought are taken in through the senses. Mind depends for materials as body does, on nature outside it, and like the body, its inner workings are its own. We must think for ourselves, if we think at all. We can no more think for a child than eat for it, no more acquire for it than grow for it. All round us the materials are provided, but the mental activity and the process by which material becomes knowledge is the mind's own. Knowledge is a result of the union of objects and mind; it is a fusion of the two. In all, knowledge is re-born, or re-created, and accumulated by the mind's own powers into an organic whole, a kind of capital or a mental body of thought. To this the mind itself may furnish its share; it may add more beside the self-active organising power which, from the first dawn of intelligence, puts impressions in order, like to like, and builds up its concepts. This fundamental mental activity, whatever the materials employed, should be exercised and so made more capable, for this activity is the basis of thought—of all thought; not merely of design; inventional drawing, with elementary lines or brush strokes, may be used to develop powers that enter into all thought. Pestalozzi was so modern: he said, the mind, like a motor car, has its own power of going within itself; all we can do is to recognise its self-active powers and accept an invitation to drive it in obedience to its own bodily and mental mechanism.

"Drawing out," or expression, and "going to nature," or impression, are connected by mind and its activities or thought.

the whole sequence, or whole method may be stated in three short words, see—think—do. From eye to mind, from mind to hand, from material to knowledge, and from knowledge to expression. The work done, judgment begins, and the work is verified, and revised. Mind the centre, the heart of the circulation; through one set of sense-organs receives, by others gives back; by the harmonious action of each on all, and all on each, skill, knowledge, and power are produced. In the whole process or sequence is education to be found, not in fragments of it.

Expression is not limited to words; words may be the best, the most direct means, but form in its varied ways has even a wider range. Sound and form become means of human expression through some activity of the body or its organs. At first the child expresses itself by action or by sound, by movement of the body or its parts. Speech involves muscular movements and outer materials; air offers but little resistance. All arts are united in this: they are expressions of mind through some activity of the body, or its parts; with materials added. The senses and organs vary; the materials differ, as air or iron, the products are as unlike as song and steam engine, symphony and ship, book and cathedral; but all arts contain these three factors, thought, bodily activity, and material, and all materials possess one constant characteristic—form.

If sound is the means of expression in music and spoken speech, form is essential to all other arts; even music is indebted to form for its musical instruments and its notation. Letters and books are results of a form language as universal as speech. Letters would not exist but for the power, common to humanity, of representing the form in our mental pictures; this power of drawing is spontaneous in children. Form, then, in its widest sense, is a means of expression not even second to speech, varied too from forms traced in air, that are almost as abstract as speech, outlines as symbolical as letters, and as truly language, to modifications of solid materials, carvings in marble, and buildings in iron. Further, objects, the source of mental impressions and conceptions, all have form and colour, so that form and colour are, not only almost universal means of expression, but also means of impression entering into all thought. An additional language suitable to nearly all the child's thought. Drawing is not only a means of expression, but it deepens impressions, makes them more full, complete, and accurate; it reveals too, in the child's drawings, the state of its mind and its knowledge. The question is often asked, what is the use of drawing? We are told children will never need it, that it is a special "subject," an "extra," that a child has no talent and therefore need not learn.

Action is an essential element in all arts; by repeated action skill is acquired; by constant doing man is perfected in art. This is practically admitted even by those who believe in special talents. A man apprentices his son to a carpenter, quite sure

that the boy may become a carpenter; the powers needed for it he has already in germ; only put him in the way, and give him exercise, and he will acquire the skill and become a carpenter; no special talents are needed for it, nor none to become a doctor or parson—a teacher is doubtful, we approach the border. Some teachers maintain still that the teacher is born, not made; but the artist is quite another being, except among themselves. To represent a simple object by outline from memory requires special talent; to invent a pattern, or illustrate a story, or a line of poetry—genius. In a high school a little girl had not drawn her copy quite accurately—a very natural thing; in some cases it might be even a virtue, for it would show that the child was thinking for itself. The head mistress in scolding her said: "You can do it better, you know, for you have the talent for drawing." Anticipating, or reading perhaps, the child's thought, she added, "I could not do it at all myself, for I have not the gift of drawing." In the very sanctuary the high priest boldly proclaims such infidelity as the gospel of education. What is true of carpentry and of surgery is true of drawing, true not only of skill but of knowledge and power. We have separated form and have not correlated our words and our arts. Our school is too often one-sided and lacking in fundamental principles. If all the powers man needs, all the powers of humanity exist potentially in all, and it seems that education means and presupposes this; it is the business of the educator to unfold these powers to give us our possessions. How to do it is the problem. It seems clear that if we use the powers we have, however feeble or child-like they are, they will develop; that there is a natural course of development to be followed, but we must find it, and that the whole sequence from nature to mind, from mind to expression, must be the child's own. There is much to be done before this course is found.

In all, thought is reborn. Original thought is considered a rare product, but all thought is original. We can understand others only so far as we have thought their thoughts or reached their condition. He only hears who brings power to bear. Original thought may be something never thought before, or the growth in the individual of thought common to humanity. Board school boys in Whitechapel and Bermondsey are capable of abundance of original thought of a simple kind. Their inventional drawings are often so original, we may seek in vain for such combinations; they have never come from boy or man before. This we might have expected; the original thought may not be of much value, but anyone can see it exists.

To educate we must know something of this. There is a natural course of development. We must put ourselves in harmony with it and follow it. We know man by his expressions, so we may know the child. Much that we want to know is well known. Who does not know that the child is not a man; yet we attempt to teach and to educate by methods adapted to the man, not to the child; measure it by his standards, not

by its own. Man's power and knowledge cannot be given the child by words and copies. We cannot get Michael Angelo's knowledge into the child; we may give it his drawings to copy, but imitation separated from the whole sequence does not educate. Michael Angelo's drawing is the expression of his work, and thought-result is in every line. We cannot get his knowledge by imitating his lines. To acquire it we must go through the course he went through. The beginnings, steps, and way in which the child should go we need to know. By study of it we hope to get light on these and many other difficulties. To know how expression evolves will help us; in many ways the child's development follows that of the race. We shall get help from both. But before going to the child there is another factor—so important that it cannot be passed by. We have been dealing with knowledge.

All arts are expressions of man, but they differ. Arts are useful and æsthetic. "Boots are necessities in these civilised "times, but pictures are a luxury," so we read in the newsapper, and it is the opinion of many. If by "luxury" is meant something unnecessary and useless, then man must be made to another pattern with other materials before it is true. Painting preceded boots; love of colour and decoration springs spontaneously out of the spirit of the savage and the child, and is not easily destroyed. If man is only a body to be fed and shod, education is useless. The whole child, head and heart, as well as feet, comes to school. The whole man exists all his life, and must be included in our scheme of education. "Man," says Froebel, "is a creator, made in the image of a Greater Creator." If we reject this account of his origin the fact will remain: the child is a creator, of this there is no doubt, a lover of beauty, a being born to express himself. Suppress, or, what is practically the same thing, leave these germs of his real humanity unfed, unused, undeveloped, in a death-like sleep, and the man is incomplete, discontented, at war with himself, subject to lower pleasures, and his defects and discontent affects the community. He must work for his bread, but he is a machine working monotonously, without joy in his work, for into it no invention, no beauty, enters. Into much of our daily work and life creative and beautiful art might enter and be twice blessed, a recreation to the doer and a joy to the beholder. The Japanese produce beautiful inventions without end. Is nature partial to Japan? What they do we can do. Beautiful inventions are as possible to us as to them. Abundance awaits the educator who can and will appeal to man's creative spirit, not to dead tradition; the mind is as fertile as fields in spring, so may expression be. When his whole soul goes into his work, freely and happily, man is content.

Let us see what is to be learned from the race and from the child. In his primitive state man reveals the æsthetic side of his nature clearly. When he has satisfied his bodily wants, he indulges in some kind of free spontaneous activity which gives

him pleasure; his inner life expresses itself in some kind of play. Mr. Herbert Spencer, following Schiller, says, "Man's ideal life "expresses itself and is nourished by free spontaneous action, "which in the lower grades of being may be termed *play*, but "in the higher results in art." That art begins with play, with the free spontaneous expression of life and feeling within, often with simple, rough, and rude expression, very unlike that of Michael Angelo, is not to be forgotten.

The savage who has gained skill with a cutting tool delights to use his acquired power. He arranges the notches or lines that are easily made with his simple instruments into order, and this archaic art in time, becomes decorative design. It is quite natural for him to arrange his marks, lines, or notches in order, for this arranging of material in order is the fundamental activity of the mind of man, with such simple doings decorative art begins. All fine art may be traced back to such simple beginnings, rude and rough they may be, but they are the real expression of artistic feelings.

The development of the child's expression and thought is more easily studied than that of the race. The study of the living child will, in the future, probably modify our teaching very much. Our school methods and traditions have come to us from an opposite source, from the philosopher, not from the child; the methods of mature minds dominate. The study of the child has influenced very much the alternative syllabus all through, principles and practice.* Some critics have been much surprised at what appears to them a gross neglect of first principles. They say, "You ought to 'go to nature' and you do not." A little child will often count the number of people in a room and forget to count itself. Much of the child is in the man. Nature outside us would have no existence if it were not for our inner nature. Nature without and nature within are one; shall we forget ourselves? We cannot even "go to nature" properly, without recognising and understanding something of the nature which goes. When we go to nature—when we observe the child as we observe objects—we shall get some very strange revelations. This syllabus is not a complete scheme, is only a fraction, a beginning, dealing with elementary drawing—with the elements of form and the education of children in elementary schools. It has to regard limitations and existing arrangements, which cannot be altered.

It has been considerably influenced by the nature of the child, it evidently results from observed facts, and its exercises are clearly the survivals of many experiments. It is more than possible that the practical applications founded on the facts are incomplete, perhaps unsuitable. If we see principles we are bound to try and make our practice conform. The

* The reference is to the "alternative illustrated syllabus of instruction in "drawing in elementary day schools," published in the "Illustrated Syllabus of the "course of instruction in Drawing under the Department of Science and Art." 1896. (Eyre and Spottiswoode.)

attempt—call it scheme, system, or syllabus—is sure to be full of error. If any practical teacher believes, and determines to apply the one principle, "Education must be drawn out of the "child and be germinated within him," it will lead him to study the nature of the child; or, he may start with another principle "We must go to nature and learn from her." If he is true to these principles, and attempts to apply them, he will soon find it necessary to alter, and before long to reverse some, perhaps most, of our established methods, for these have reversed the principle of development, and have assumed that the child is a miniature man.

Art in the race begins with free spontaneous activity or play. Professor J. Sully, in his "Studies of Childhood," says:— "Drawing shows itself in its essential characteristics as a "spontaneous self-taught activity of childhood, which take its "rise in the play impulse," and, "a child's first attempts at "drawing are pre-artistic and a kind of play." Schiller, Froebel, Mr. Herbert Spencer, and other authorities support the principle that art begins with play.

Let us look further: (1.) The child comes into the world without ideas, unable to control the movements of its own body. Its limbs move, but without purpose. All its powers are indefinite. On its mind, light and colour soon make an impression, and some vague movements of the body are its first expressions. By movements and sounds it begins to express itself. This may be considered the first stage.

(2.) Before it speaks it babbles; before it draws it scribbles. Its organs of speech are used and developed by meaningless noises before it has ideas, or words with which to express them. The organs are prepared for their proper use before will, intellect, and feelings are ready to co-operate, with bodily organs. In the same way its hands come under the control of its inner self.

A mother brought her one-year-old boy to the lesson, and gave him slate and chalk like the other children, thinking perhaps that he would scribble, when he saw them drawing. But he dropped the chalk, took the slate in his hand, and pushed and pulled it backwards and forwards without even looking at it. He was looking about the room. He seemed pleased with the movement, and repeated it for some time, showing that feeling and will existed as well as sensation. He came again soon. Slate and chalk were given as before. This time he held the chalk and tapped the slate with it, making a noise, which he heard, but did not seem able to trace its cause. He did not look at his hand, nor at the result. When he next came, his mother took his hand in hers and scribbled with it. He was not yet ready to follow this suggestion from without, nor to imitate the others. He saw what was done with his own hand, but did not seem to consider it his doing, for he did not attempt to continue it or repeat it; it was not his own free expression. Soon after he scribbled from himself and enjoyed it.

(3.) Scribble appears. The sensation of touch and muscular sensibility will be so far developed, about the end of a year, that

the smooth fur of the cat or the surface of polished furniture gives pleasure, and movements over the surfaces are repeated again and again. The movement is a pleasure as well as the soft texture. To produce something by touch and movement adds to the pleasure. This may be partly the secret of the pleasure taken in scribble.

Scribble is, in a sense, an advanced art, a complex combination, beyond sensation and muscular activity. Eye and hand, body and mind, movement, feeling, and will, material and means, all enter into its production. The child produces something outside itself, and has established that correlation of mind and body, material and instrument, so essential to expression and education. The child points out by its acts, that the way to bring these different factors into unity, is by repeated rapid action with non-resisting materials and by exercising the expression of its own thought.

The child's spontaneous activity expresses itself by diverse means and materials. In air the first free movements of a child leave no trace. Air resists not and records not. A polished chair or table may happen to be dusty. The child soon finds this, and its hand goes merrily round and round over the surface. It sees the product, discovers the power of making lines, and learns that the finger tips are better than the whole hand. The smooth surface resists but little more than air. Water spilt on a similar surface runs without help, attracting the child by its movement, it may be guided or played with. Snow, dust, and wet sand may be transitional; if the finger is used, the cold or wet may suggest a stick suited to the hand; an instrument which incises the plastic earth. But the greatest pleasure is playing with fire. The stick, so useful in making these lines, makes better fireworks; one end burning, but not blazing, may be twisted and spun easily into red fire lines of varied patterns, bright and brilliant against the black chimney for background. With the least movement the pattern is changed. Later, the stick of burnt wood itself, as charcoal, will be used, as freely as white chalk on walls or a pencil on paper. Perhaps the sharp points of pens or nails are set spinning or scribbling over smooth surfaces. This love of scribble lasts some time, and uses many materials.

(4.) The child next *associates* impressions or ideas with its scribble—line becomes a sign. A child made three similar rounded scribbles, and said as he made them:—"That's mamma," "that's a gee-gee," "that's pussy." The same kind of scribble stood for these different things. A boy of three in the kindergarten had, I am told, a book for drawing like the older children Like them, too, he made drawings. His drawings were only scribble, unintelligible to anyone but himself; but to him every page was full of meaning, the same lines always standing for the same things. He associates things seen, impressions, ideas, words, with his scribble. The line stands for the idea, and is a sign to him—a language—as much as words are. I have reasons

for remembering this myself. Drawings are often made by a class of children in the kindergarten, where the transition from scribble to representation is evident.

Another thing takes place about this time. The child, delighted with its scribble, which is done usually without thought, simply as the result of its free spontaneous activity; looks at it after it is done; contemplates it with pleasure, and finds in it—as it finds faces in the fire and forms in the clouds—a likeness to things it has seen. The happy discovery that it has made something stimulates it to further effort and gives confidence. What has been done in this chance way can be done again, or this product of chance may possibly help to form an image that the child can imitate.

(5.) It is another stage when mind *initiates* the process, not *the hand.* When muscular activity becomes the servant of mental, a new and further development is taking place. Now the child attempts to express its impressions or mental images. It does not draw from objects directly at first, but from its memory or knowledge of them. Lines are used, but no great difference is at first apparent between the products which originate, one in the mind, the other in the muscles. The new ruler begins to reign, but the policy is continuous. There is no sudden transition. We might doubt from the product at first if there was any difference, but talk to the child and it will soon be evident that it is trying now to express a thought or concept, not to copy or imitate the form of the animal direct as we older people see it; that is too special, but the result of all its sensations, its knowledge.

First attempts at representation, like those of speech, are often very indefinite. Little heed is there to the relation, number, proportion, or form of parts. A fish has "lots" of fins, both with the child and the archaic Greek artist. Often there is little or no resemblance to the object. There is, however, analysis. The eye of the fish may be in its mouth, or the eye of the cat may be bigger than the head and partly outside it, but the eye is distinguished from the head, and a separate attempt has been made to represent it. As more definite form emerges from this confusion, outline is general; it may be that the child uses his finger tips or a bit of stick first, but it is generally given a pencil or some similar instrument which makes a line most easily—a brush has other powers; the power of making a clear line is not its easiest.

The study of the living child and its mental development throws light over the whole subject, as nothing else can do. Its notions are not ours; to educate, its own thought must be used. The child reveals the workings of its mind and its thought. We can watch its progress from indefinite to definite—can see how it separates wholes, and makes wholes from parts. The young child does not separate object and thought, thought and expression. To it, outer and inner are one; it begins where philosophy ends. "I hit that cup and it won't break," said one

boy; he was striking a print in a book with his hand and then with a stick. "I cannot pick it up," said another; he was trying to pick up a hawthorn leaf, in one of Bewick's tail-pieces. We must always remember the child is not man; that our own past experience is not enough for us; we must study the child as it is. From it we shall learn something of the nature of line and outline, with which child and race begin drawing something of line elements and of elements generally. We shall see and understand some of its difficulties in drawing directly from objects; we shall see that at first it is unnatural to go to Nature." Children will help us with drawing from copies, objects, memory, imagination, and knowledge, with the means and materials suitable and the methods of working, and much more on which more light is needed. Line and outline are very important, and they seem often misunderstood.

The nature of line and outline is usually overlooked. Outline is the natural way in which the child expresses its impressions of external nature, its mental pictures, or its knowledge, favoured by a hard pointed instrument, which is generally used at first. Outline is the natural method of drawing, and yet nature gives no outline. A white sheet of paper has no line round it. Objects are seen as masses or surfaces of light or dark colour, one against another, having limits to their forms, but no outlines. It is remarkable, then, that men at all times and places represent objects, or mental pictures, spontaneously, and in so doing create outline. The drawings may be made either for pleasure, to express or convey thought by pictures or picture writing, or they may arise from playing with some familiar instrument and arranging its characteristic lines in order. In these lines are the germs of pictures, letters, and design. Outline or line is common to the drawings of savage, child, and student; it is found in early pictorial art, and it remains unchanged in its nature in the highest and best. The student begins with line; the teacher in class uses little else on the blackboard, for his drawing is but picture writing. The painter softens outline into the background; the early artist knows little of backgrounds, nor of the relation of tones and shadows; they belong to a world of objects; his drawing originates in a world of ideas; the relation of objects to each other has hardly been considered by him yet. Outline often remains in the best pictures and drawings, and is of great value, as is Turner's *Liber Studiorum*. If, however, the painter aims at representing objects as they appear in nature, in their right relations; if he subordinates the expression of thought and feelings to the representation of fact, he will intentionally get rid of outline entirely, if not of line. His materials and brushes will help this: they represent mass and surface easily; a firm point does this with difficulty. Oils approach modelling in low relief, and line is easily dispensed with if the painter wishes. The picture which aims at representation of impressions and the blackboard drawing have little in common. One aims at expressing thought,

the other at perfecting the form which embodies thought; one uses line, the other abandons it. Other artists who regard thought as essential to a picture, insist on line in various ways. In highest pictorial art, the lines of composition and general truth are direct expressions of the controlling creative mind—signs of its thought and feeling, the spirit of the artist. Line is not limited to the hard-pointed instrument nor to painting. If living figures were posed and grouped like those in the pediment or frieze of the Pantheon and photographed, the beauty of line and generalisation of forms in each figure, or in the groups—the thought, knowledge, and feeling of Pheidias, would be wanting, even if his composition was imitated. His lines are seen even in marble where they could easily have been hidden. Line in highest art, and in materials where it need not be accented, retains its early significance; it is a means of expression, conveying thought and feeling like language, and like it created by man.

That line is language is a novel, daring, and debatable statement which cannot be fully considered here, nor can it be left out. Line has other interpretations. Even those teachers of drawing who believe in "going to nature" only, begin with and insist on outline, which is not to be found in objective nature at all, but proceeds from the creative mind of man. If we ask, why they begin by opposing their own principles, and what is the nature of line, we are told, line is "conventional," and this "comforting and consoling" word is supposed to be a sufficient answer. But everyone has for this magical utterance, as for the term education, a private interpretation, and no two agree. What the convention is, what its terms are, why it is needed, who makes it, are questions that remain unanswered. While this new position is taken up; lines are elements of geometric form. We must therefore try and understand something of geometric form and its elements, to see if they agree with the line used for drawing. If line is language, a means of conveying thought by signs, created by the necessities of expression, these questions may, perhaps, receive some answer. But this new view brings another difficulty. Language has elements; reading is taught by them, if speech is not. What are the elements of line? By these we should teach in the elementary school. Are the geometric lines and the lines for drawing identical? Are they elements of the same thing?

Language is a means of expressing or conveying thought by signs. Outline does not represent form; there is no line round an object. The scribble of the little child stands for objects long before the child can make or even suggest resemblance to their form. Outline stands for the object or the mental picture; it is a sign, not a representation. In this sense, line is language—a universal language, for it is everywhere created and understood by man. But it is still more nearly allied to speech. Man has not only the power of creating language, but of gene-

ralising. Animals may think in a simple way and have some limited means of conveying thought by signs, but they cannot create speech nor generalise. All thought, all knowledge and all language is general. Language is a system of general signs which may be applied indefinitely. This is true both of words and line—both are united in letters, where form stands for sound. The child's line is general, and stands for a generalisation; thought and its expression agree. The child's drawing tells us what it knows by line signs, it is not a representation of the object.

Line and speech are both intimately related to knowledge, not only by this special characteristic of generality, but they are combinations of mind, body, and outer nature. Line is form modified by mind and hand to express thought, as speech is sound modified for the same purpose. Word and thought, thought and line, are both results of a triple union—the mind's creative power, the bodily organs, and outer nature. Knowledge is a synthesis of objects, body, and mind, and so is language, whether of sound or form. One works from without inwards, from impressions to ideas; the other from within outwards, from thought to its outer expression.

Children's early drawings seem to confirm the conclusion that line is language, and show at the same time that it is unnatural for the little child to draw directly from nature as a student does; its drawing from nature is done another way. To represent objects as they appear is very difficult; to express its knowledge by sign, is easy. The child's first drawing of a man is not a representation, but a statement of its knowledge in line signs. The child frequently puts two eyes in the profile, for it knows there are two, and it tells us what it knows, not what it sees; it expresses its knowledge by signs, not pictorially. Head and body are rounded; one is circular, the other elliptical, both are generalisations; unlike the legs, they both inclose organs of which the child is more or less conscious. The straight lines stand for, but do not represent, the nose and mouth, the arms and legs. The legs are straight, when compared with the body, and have no thickness, for the child is less conscious of it.

Knowledge unites impressions received from different senses, and the child often tries to express by line conceptions and feelings beyond the powers of form; such as movement. The strokes of the hand along the back of the cat are lines to the child, just as the lighted end of a stick is when moved rapidly in air. Line in its making retains some of the pleasure given by muscular movement; the line often stands for continuous movement. Outer and inner are not separated. The child attempts to put more than is possible into this language; it tries to represent movement, feeling and knowledge; its line often stands for this as much as for the outer form.

Knowledge, or general truth, always affects the production. Drawing is a complex process. The impression of an object received through the eye sets the whole mind in motion before

its representation appears again as an object on paper for the further contemplation and criticism of its maker. Mind is impressed by the object, but mind in turn, by thought, modifies the representation. Mind is fundamentally self-active; it is always, in all its stages, receiving impressions through the senses from outer nature, as sensitive as a photographic plate, but not like it free from previous impressions, nor passive. It puts together similar impressions or perceptions, and so finds unity in variety; the general in the particular. In reasoning or representing general truth or knowledge controls the result.

If a cherry is drawn from knowledge it will frequently be represented by a circle, or by a form intended for it, for we recognise no other generalisation of rounded form but the circle. A cherry is round; the most perfect rounded line form is the circle; therefore the nearer the cherry is made to that general form, the more it will be like a cherry. With the real object in front, students often make this mistake. General truth controls the representation. It is easier to draw from knowledge than from sight; to use line language than represent things as they are.

Take another illustration from colour. A class of 11 girls are given a peony petal to paint; poppy or rose would have done equally well. Ten paint the petal one uniform red colour, crimson lake. One girl, who looks at her petal, adds a little scarlet and purple in some places. But the class laugh at this. The petal is red; they know this, and paint it so; there is no need to look. If they should look, and see other colours, so strong is the conception they do not attempt to represent what they see. Knowledge controls every line, every colour. The power of reaching general truth or knowledge is specially characteristic of man, and so, too, is the power of creating the means of expression, word and line.

There is another fact in drawing the cherry useful to us. Humanity has a tendency to generalise hastily, and also to overstate the order of nature, to idealise beyond the bounds of observed fact. This tendency exists in everyone. In it is, perhaps, found the germ of mathematical form. It may seem heretical to attribute this ideality to mathematics, but even the conception of the perfect circle is due to this power. No perfect circle, no straight line, exist in nature. They are pure abstractions, without any concrete counterpart, creations of the mind—ideals—but none the less true and none the less founded, as all conceptions are, on objects and sensations; for us the difference is important in considering the nature of line.

Geometric forms are apparently generalisations. General forms are mental products, abstracted from impressions of objects. Central, simple forms that change not in the midst of infinite varieties of similar shape, like the central figure in a composite photograph, they unite the likeness of all. But geometric forms seem to go beyond them. No perfect circle, no straight

line, exists in any object. The geometrical conception transcends objects and frees itself from material; its lines have no breadth. They are purely mental. The lines of a geometrical diagram are only signs.

Having reached the conception of a whole form; by another process apparently deductive, we arrive at line. A plane is abstracted from a solid, a line from a plane. There are two processes or methods, by one the mind arrives at general form —induction; by the other it arrives at elements—deduction. One is the method of modern natural science, the other of ancient philosophy and mathematics. The geometrical conceptions show that man must have reached a high degree of mental development. The line is obviously entirely unlike the line used for drawing. One is the spontaneous product of man, everywhere a concrete sign for things seen and for the conveyance of thought; the other is an abstraction, a result of high mental culture. One is used by cave men to state facts seen, the other by philosophers to exercise and develop reason.

Elementary geometric lines are limited to two. Forms generally considered geometrical are the circle, triangle, and square. Simpler, but more general still, are their elements, straight lines and arc, with which the forms can be constructed. These are the only elementary lines we recognise. But with them not one living thing can be drawn, nor a part of one Not only is the line of the cave men different, but the lines we call geometrical they do not use, as we shall see. These lines which we call elements are higher generalisations than circle, triangle, and square. Natural and geometric figures are apparently different. Are the elements identical?

Let us consider elements generally a little, before the elements of linear form. We talk constantly of elementary drawing, but what is it? What are its elements? The elements of reading and writing we know, although "pothooks and hangers" are as obsolete as the rod. The very elements of arithmetic have been attacked, and we are not all so sure that figures are the elements of number. The alphabet remains, but we hardly know if words or syllables, letters or sounds, are the true elements, or something else, and these are the very foundation of the elementary school. The confusion is greater in some other subjects. The nature of elements generally is very vague, and the method of teaching by them also. We seem to be drifting away from elementary teaching towards something else without knowing it. It may be well to know where we are going.

The authors of a dozen works on elementary botany have as as many different notions of the elements of plants and of the manner of using them, while the child has its own notions. Even the child separates wholes into parts by the working of its own mind. In the child's early drawings, head, body, legs, and features are separated before the relations of size and position are regarded. The eye of a cat may be larger than the

head, and partly outside it, but the eye is separated from the head. The child cannot represent until it analyses, and we can see it doing this before it can put the parts together again consistently. One little boy copied a drawing in which the objects had been carefully composed, but regardless of this he separated them and placed them in one long row like a procession. He may have thought he improved the order. To him the composition may have seemed confusion. Another boy copied a house from a drawing. In the original the roof rested, as usual on the wall, but in the copy made by the child roof and wall were separate things, each having its own outline; they did not touch at any point. We should not understand the drawing if the young artist himself did not explain. The analytic power itself, the power which makes elements, even in the little child, require exercise as well as the synthetic.

For a time the child rests content with the elements it has found itself, but they are not final; the self activity of mind and its natural development leads to breaking up of elements themselves into smaller and smaller parts until mountains resolve themselves into mists, and the mists melt into thin air and vanish away. The solid earth and its living inhabitants, are reduced by this power to inconceivable atoms. Physics and metaphysics lead at last to the same mysterious realm. Of all these elements which are to be given the child, and how far is it to be helped to analyse?

We can see how elements vary. In botany there seems to be no educational authority yet acknowledged by the school, which can determine the right elements nor the true order and method of teaching. It may be clear, but the school does not see. The "new learning" knew nothing of this science, nor of any physical science. So the old forms are applied to the new. The school was established before Bacon on deductive principles, and finds a difficulty in adjusting itself to inductive methods and natural science. In its popular form it has abandoned principles it had, and has got no new. We have in botany all manner of elements. Many may have good reasons to offer for their selections, but they often oppose each other and puzzle us. Some authors begin the study of plants with molecules and atoms, or with gases, minerals, and metals, for physics and chemistry are the material basis of plants; therefore these are the true elements. Others begin with biology, and a more complex unit—the cell—either as a whole plant of low organisation, or as a unit of structure, or even formless protoplasm may be substituted, for it is the basis or element of all biological structure. Others, recognising human nature as a factor, and ordinary eye-sight, begin with things that can be seen, with seed or bud, with shoot or whole plant; but these are evidently wholes, therefore others more strictly elementary begin with parts—with root, the botanical base of the plant; with leaf, because all parts are leaf-like; with flowers, for they are attractive; some may begin with fruit if they begin in the autumn, because they are

seasonable; or, again, some others begin with typical forms, with classification, or large generalisations like Goethe's, or unities like that of the seed. All these parts and wholes, from atoms to largest conceptions, are included in our elements of botany. There may be more.

Our notions of elements are in some confusion, and the methods of teaching by them also. The school of old provided elements and exercises, and also a method of teaching both, supported by authority. Its basis was logical not psychological; the child's mental powers were not considered; it was not credited with any; the child was not studied; the value of observation had not been discovered; the self-activity of the child's mind was unknown. "We must give the child ideas before we draw them out" is its teaching; not, we must exercise the powers of the child, its own analytic and synthetic powers, if we would develop them. The method was didactic, not natural; all was done for the child and given it; elements found and exercises built up in the "strictest psychological order." This might be right for reading or geometry, but to gain knowledge is one thing, to use it deductively, another. The kind of exercise fitted to train observation, imagination, and conception may not so readily train the reason. We may continue to talk of elements and say we teach by them, while we are using other and different ways. It is too often the case that in botany, notwithstanding Huxley's Biology, we continue to give the results of others to the children; their observations, experiments, conclusions, and expressions, also descriptions and drawings. The seeing, thinking, and doing has all been done by others, and the children are told on authority, they have only to read or hear, to accept, copy, and repeat, and they will know. We have abandoned geometry, a study logical and right if the powers are developed, and substituted methods neither logical nor suited to develop the capacities of the child. True elementary teaching there may be, and the teacher in some subjects finds it the easiest way for him to teach. But the child has its notions: what does it say?

If elements are the true milk for young minds, the fact has been carefully concealed. Babies learn to talk long before they can be taught the alphabet; they learn to speak in the attempt to express real wants; expression is a necessity. Sound and thought are not consciously separated. At first, a sound may stand for a whole sentence; then the sentence is the unit. At four years, the separate words of a sentence are not always clear to a child. It learns one way; it is taught by another. It learns to speak unsystematically, not separating thought and word; its sounds are real expressions of its wants. The school separates words and thoughts, divides words into letters. The child learns by its own observation and thought the real knowledge it brings to school, of which words are only the expression. The school ignores all study of nature except, perhaps, in advanced drawing, all form and colour except in an isolated and limited way; it will have nothing to do with the

natural method of learning, any more than with real knowledge. The child gets its knowledge and its mother tongue, in a desultory way; if it learns by elements, they are not those of the school, but its own. Its own mind is always actively separating or uniting ideas. Nature all around may appear to it in some ways ordered, in others very confused. Nature presents to the child fragments in disorder, at great distances apart, in infinite variety and great complexity. The child has to put the pieces of the puzzle together, to simplify the complex, to classify the chaotic, to find the one among the many, to get its own knowledge by its own observation and thought. There are two methods, the child's and the teacher's, the psychological and the logical.

Are we to teach or to educate? Are the child's own powers to be exercised or is the old way the only way? Questions of this kind are working everywhere, often in some shape powerfully. We seem to be in confusion, with no definite principles. We are off with the old, not yet on with the new; but this confusion, which may be a sign of transition, gives freedom, space to work in, room for experiment. We may want more.

Drawing, like botany, has a miscellaneous collection of elements; lines, generalisations, abstractions, geometric, and natural forms. It is separated from other studies; form is not taught, nor thought about; and yet form underlies nearly every study and has apparently a language of its own. All the parts of flowering plants are but modified planes of one general form; capital exercises in simple modelling and making. Other natural classes are revelations of the wonderful ways in which nature develops simple forms. We are supposed to teach by elements, but there is no elementary line nor general form recognised by which these natural forms can be drawn. If form is language, we should be able to find its alphabet and to use it constructively as we use the elements of words. If we cannot find the elements of plants we may find elements of linear form. Something of the kind must be done if we are to enter the school. We must conform to its traditions and methods; must work under its conditions and limitations. In its uncertainty or transition there may be freedom. We return to line and its elements.

Drawing generally begins with line. Child and race begin with it; and the elementary school also. Line is recognised as an element in drawing and geometry. The lines in the two studies are supposed to be identical; the received opinion being that lines are elements of geometric form. If we ask "What "has geometric to do with natural form; or with the ex- "pression of thought and feeling? What is geometric form? "What are its elementary lines, and what is their nature?" there is some difficulty. Geometry comes to us with such undisputed and ancient authority, it is associated with so much that is greatest in human thought; we ask not its origin, that it exists is enough. Its lines are so like those used for drawing,

that they are parts of its forms can so easily be seen; we conclude without question that the two lines are identical, and if "conventional" fails to explain the nature of the line, "geometrical" is considered all sufficient. Geometric form and its elementary lines are supposed to be the fundamental forms and lines of all objects, and therefore of drawing. The difficulty of outline is got rid of easily. Mathematical forms are abstractions, having length but not breadth. Therefore the actual lines are abstractions also, having length only. Geometric lines are given the child in elementary drawing, presumably to build up into forms, or rather to make the process of copying lines—which is the chief business of our elementary drawing—easier. In this way drawing may be of some humble service to geometry, and for that service it is allowed sometimes into the school. For geometry is of unique and supreme value as mental training and discipline, especially exercising the reasoning powers. Drawing is supposed to prepare for geometry because the child is made familiar with lines, angles, and forms.

Of line, as language, a sign for thought, we shall hear nothing; but we shall hear that line, like the form it is derived from, is an abstraction, having length but not breadth, and that with these lines, which are obtained deductively from geometric form, we draw. We make a firm broad line to represent a house; we add the line—it is not clear if the outline is outside or inside the limits of its form, most likely outside—we intend it to be seen; we draw some mental picture for others to see, or we convey thought by lines or letters—for it should be remembered, the line which at first was used as a sign to represent bird, animal, or object, becomes in time, after many changes and abbreviations, but still retaining traces of its origin, the letters we read and write with—we are told these lines are abstractions, and they are, but that they are purely ideal, having no breadth, is surely a self-evident absurdity. Do we not confuse the form and its function? A very easy thing to do. Concrete and abstract? The means used for reasoning with the means used for expression, both are line forms; but the end of one is mathematical truth, of the other to express thought, to make it external and objection.

The purpose of geometry—training of special mental faculty, reason—is unusual and isolated. We do not attempt to train mental powers. Why should reason alone be trained? It may be said that reason is the supreme faculty of mind needed at all times. Then we may expect to find it trained in all schools as the means exist. But no! Geometry is rarely taught; it has probably been found that children have not yet sufficient reasoning power to follow Euclid, and nothing else has authority to take its place. Reason is not the only mental power always needed. It does not arise suddenly; its essential activity exists in the mind of the baby, and the same process of putting like things together and finding agreement is active in sensation, perception, and conception. Imagination builds up general

truth or knowledge, and reason uses these acquisitions in its more extended workings, but the essential activity is the same. The reasoning power rests on others. In the first proposition in Euclid certain lines are equal, because all lines from centre to circumference of the circle are equal. But this knowledge of the circle itself, used by the reason and essential to its operation, has first to be gained in the usual way by observation, memory, and imagination, before reasoning is possible. In drawing the cherry the general form of a circle must first be known. There are earlier processes, if it is so important to cultivate reason, and the children's minds are not yet fit for it. Why are not other powers cultivated? Powers that lie at its foundation and exercise its activity; that prepare for it and are essential to its perfect development; powers, too, that are naturally very active in childhood. Observation and constructive imagination? The fact is we do not aim either at the culture of mental faculty nor at the acquisition of real knowledge. Geometry and its psychological aim comes indirectly from Greece, from an education unlike ours, which did aim both at the acquisition of real knowledge and the culture of mental faculty. Deductive reasoning was with them the way to knowledge. Our aim is not this. We hardly know what knowledge is—confuse it with information: seek it neither inductively by natural form and observation, nor deductively by geometric form and reason.

In Greece the intellect was cultivated without neglecting natural form and æsthetics. We took geometry, but not natural form. Form has never been a real part of our schoolwork. Geometry is almost confined to the public school and to schools that prepare for it. The study of natural form in art is isolated and special. In science there is much morphology, but knowledge of abstract form is assumed, not supplied. We are told in class that the stem of a plant is round, and we find that circle, disc, sphere, cylinder, cone, oval, ovate, and ellipse are also round, and only the oval had a name. Form study is necessary, both abstract and natural. Form is associated with the beginning of all knowledge; it underlies most subjects. Drawing is one way of gaining knowledge of form and of expressing it; not the only way; it can be converted into words, and can be made. Instead of giving general forms and elements they might be discovered and made; instead of telling, there might be observation; instead of copies, the child might invent patterns or combine given elements instead of bit by bit imitation, there might be memory of whole. In this way those mental powers, which precede and prepare for reason, and that activity which is its own, might be examined and developed.

This, or partly this, seems foremost among the aims of the new syllabus for drawing. It cannot include the whole region of form; it is but a contribution to a very large subject, and but a small fragment at its best. By lines and forms it attempts to exercise that fundamental activity of mind which is thought itself. To encourage invention; to

exercise constructive imagination, this is as necessary as to exercise the reason, for it is an element in all thought and prepares for reason itself, by building up general truth. By this exercise the child will come to knowledge of form, both elements and general form. It may help the child to see. Seeing is not so easy as is often supposed. To see and interpret rightly what is seen is one aim of education. The powers will not be limited to form. If the mental power is developed it will be used generally. It should help all thought and all studies.

The lines are those of Greek decorative art, not of its geometry. But the scheme is not an imitation of Greek work, as we shall see, although archaic Greek art has had considerable influence. The child in many ways follows the development of the race, and both child and race have been considered. For this reason the early art of Greece demanded attention. The similarity in result is caused partly by following the principles and using the materials they used; by recognising the structure of the arm and its resulting lines, and then giving free play to the brush and colour.

This should be quite clear; the child must see and think for itself; it must combine and invent, not merely copy what others have done. This is so hard to learn; some teachers cannot understand it at all. One of the results of this is the isolation of drawing. The intention and practice of this new drawing scheme has in some cases been perverted and reversed. Some teachers seem to consider they are doing the child a service, instead of an injury, by providing it with copies made with easy strokes and touches of the brush. They seem proud of efforts that babies in the kindergarten equal and sometimes surpass; and the worst of it is, they are quite unconscious of their mistake. The expression of its own thought, the exercise of its own mental activity, educates the child. It can put lines together as soon as it can draw. Copies are cribs; the real work of translation from objects into line has in them been done. Copies may be models of composition and have other values, but they exercise constructive imagination very little. Copies made with the class, by children; by teacher and children; as illustrations or examples; or in any way which brings class and teacher into communion and into action, which interests and stimulates to effort, are quite unlike the dead printed copies so commonly given, to the exclusion of all else. Copies may have value in many ways, but they should not come before the child's expression of his own ideas.

It may be well to state briefly what has been said about the nature of line before we pass on to its elements. Line is usually said to be geometrical. But the cave men use it, although we shall see they do not use in their drawings the lines we call geometrical. Line-language appears early. Probably geometric lines are language. Geometry is a late product of humanity; a result of highest mental culture. The psychological aim of geometry implies a conception of the science and art of education beyond ours to-day. We do not attempt to

train special mental faculties. The line in drawing is a concrete addition to the object; the geometrical line an abstract deduction from a generalisation, a pure mental conception of one dimension. One line is the spontaneous product of man everywhere, a sign of things seen, a language conveying thought. The other may stand for thought, but its function is to exercise the reasoning power of the philosopher. Thought would not have reached its highest state without language; geometry would not have attained to its conceptions but for line. Line and thought react on each other, as speech does. Like speech, too, it is a means both of impression and expression, and a means to clear conceptions; it helps seeing, thinking, and doing.

Geometrical line and outline stand for two different things and methods; for art and mathematics, for natural science and philosophy. In Greece there was no opposition, natural and geometrical form were both recognised. Soon after geometry was established in our public schools, the need for natural form also was felt. Comenius recognised it as essential, and from the publication of the *Orbis Pictus* to *The Two Paths* attempts were made to give natural form its place in the school and to discover its elements. But these elements have always been confused with and dominated by simple geometry. If any other forms existed beside the square, triangle, and circle, they did not come into school work, and were unknown or not recognised. So powerful was and is geometry and the schoolmen, for centuries natural form has been seen through its elementary lines. Grew tried to construct leaves out of arcs, and made elaborate designs for that purpose.* Ruskin's protest in *The Two Paths* broke the spell. Living forms ignore simple geometry. Professor D. Olliver's diagrams of leaves in his *Elements of Botany*, simple and true, should be compared with Grew's. Modern art and science are less subject to the ancient tyranny. "God forbid," said Pestalozzi in 1801, "that I should wrongly "influence and blind the mind to natural forms for the sake of "these lines and the art of teaching." "Objects must not be "taken from the child that he may only see lines. Natural "form comes first." He tried hard to construct an A B C of form and to use it, but he was caught in the toils. Educators have rarely been artists, and teachers of drawing have rarely been familiar with the science and art of education. They can teach without elements. Nature gives none; they do not help; why use them? Much may be said for this view.

For the beautiful lines the artist loves most, no elements are provided. So the practical teacher of drawing will have nothing to do with elements. As a matter of appearance, to look scholastic, elements must be put in a syllabus for elementary school drawing, but for adults they are as obsolete as "pot-

* "The figure of most leaves is very complex, yet two things are evident. First, "that all regular leaves are defined or measured out by circles; that is, by the "arches or segments of several circles."—*The Anatomy of Leaves, Flowers, Fruits, and Seeds.* N. Grew, 1682, Bk. VI., p. 150.

hooks." Educators like Pestalozzi and Froebel, who make form the foundation of their teaching and insist on elements, see the great need for elements of form. Pestalozzi retires baffled from the attempt to find them; geometry does not blind him; he gives up his A B C. Froebel, who converts the school into a garden, and recognises fully the free spontaneous action in the little child's drawing, is overmastered by geometry. His drawing is geometrical and in some ways unnatural. It is founded on Pestalozzi's abandoned A B C of form, but he does not feel as Pestalozzi did, that it was entirely inadequate; possibly because he found in these elements the inorganic forms and lines of minerals and crystals with which he was familiar. Not one plant, not one living thing can be drawn with the elements he gives.

Pestalozzi felt that there must be a few line elements with which all forms might be constructed as easily as words are built up from letters. He held that different means of expression were as important as varied sense impressions. He seems dimly to have divined that line was a kind of language, and should be so used in school. The most valuable part of his method was, he said, the interchange of means of expression, sound or words being converted into forms, and forms into words.

We should be able to find the elements of line; any attempt to use those generally recognised will show they are almost useless. Imagine a scale of musical sound, minus the fifth, or a scale of colour without the red, yellow being the only warm colour, and all reds classed under it. This is exactly the state of our elements of linear form now. There is but one curved form, and that is an arc. No wonder practical teachers consider these elements useless. They are misleading, erroneous, and incomplete. A century ago, a teacher of drawing, expressing the opinion of his time, said, all objects can be represented by combinations of lines, of which there are but two—straight line and curve; he adds later, that the curve is an arc. We are no further, and can get no further until we add more curves. If the author had said "two" curves, little objection could be made. So far as I know no one has proposed the required elementary line. In a paper read at the Education Society on *Child Nature and our Art Teaching*, in 1884, and published in the "Journal of Education," I ventured to propose a third elementary line, and this is the principal line of the new syllabus. Its pretensions should be criticised. I will try and indicate briefly some reasons for its existence, and point the way to further inquiry.

Elementary drawing books often begin with the two geometrical elements, straight line and arc, and immediately after them copies or examples are given, presumably combinations and exercises with these elements. Very often neither of the elements given appear, but instead of them there is another line with which all the exercises are made, but for this no element is offered. No beautiful freehand ornament can be made with these geometrical elements; the hand is constructed to move in other lines, for which no element is given; no drapery; few,

if any, of the lines of movement; neither falling water nor fluttering flame; no rounded forms; not even circles as they are really seen, except in one position in which the eye rarely is, exactly opposite the centre; to these may be added the whole wide region of living form, their movements and gradual changes, and none of these, nor any portions of them, can be drawn with the recognised elements—straight line and arc. The yeast plant and other low forms of life may be circular at first, at rest, or when dead. The sun and moon look like circles; the eyes of animals, sections of eggs, and parts of plants may be circular, but as we usually see them they are not. Among living things the circle is rare, and when it occurs it is rarely in a position in which it can be represented by an arc, or any combination of arcs.

Our conceptions of form and its elements require revision. We must go back to nature. We give copies and demand accuracy in the representation of their lines, yet the only elements recognised are inaccurate and useless, all are not provided. To reconsider form in natural objects; as it is seen, and our conceptions of it, is essential; but only a brief sketch can be attempted here. It needs a volume illustrated, but if the clue is given anyone may follow it, which is far better than reading books about it. Much has been done.

From natural objects general forms have been derived. To nature we therefore go. It is well known that the inorganic and organic kingdoms differ in their characteristic forms. For a long time the difference in form was one of the surest and the easiest ways to distinguish them, and it still remains useful. Crystals are bounded by straight lines and plane surfaces, plants and animals by curved lines and rounded surfaces. A snow crystal and a lily flower have both six parts radiating from a centre with the same angle between them; the crystal is bounded by straight lines, the flower by curves.

The search can be shortened by a visit to any natural history museum. For us, that at South Kensington is best. So many forms are brought near; comparison is easy. A museum is not nature, but it is a good substitute and supplement. We want now to study form, and in many specimens this is perfect.

In the mineralogical room special cases are set apart in which crystals separated from masses can be seen individually, and their characteristic forms are pointed out. These forms of inorganic nature illustrate at the same time the history of the science of mineralogy, and the relation of minerals and crystals to form. Undoubtedly straight lines and plane surfaces are the rule in inorganic nature.

Art deals with form, natural science with morphology, but neither art nor science, have offered any general forms or elementary lines for living things. Form is less fixed in living things; it is always changing with life, development, and move ment. In the small rooms on each side the entrance hall

biological science is epitomised; here the ground forms of living things may be sought, possibly found; there are contributions to it in the plants, birds, birds' eggs, fishes, and shells.

In plants the fundamental form is clear and easy to see. Goethe first discovered and proved that all parts of a flowering plant are modifications of one general ideal type of which a leaf or leaf scale is the nearest concrete representation. Form is an essential part of a leaf; what is true of the whole is true of its part. What would the leaf be without form? The general form of a leaf is ovate, an oval pointed. To reverse or vary the form, to ornament its edges, however fantastically, or to pierce its whole surface into lace-like patterns, does not alter the general form. Bud, leaf, flower, seed, embryo, even root and stem, as in onion, turnip, and potato, are but variations of the same shape—the form of bulb and fruit resulting from the form of their constituent parts. The general outline of whole plants, trees, sometimes their branches and shoots, repeat this shape or elements of it. Fir trees in form follow their cones, while the cones repeat the seed. The seed follows the trees as child follows the race.

The characters liable to least variation in plants, and consequently those on which its largest classes and generalisations depend, are those most nearly connected with its seed. Trees, flowering plants, grasses, and toadstools originate from seeds or spores. These and their contents are very constant in shape; seeds and spores are ovals. In the higher plants the immature seeds are named from their shape ovules, and the case containing them is so constant to the shape it is named the ovary. The seed-leaves of plants are often of the same form, as the limits of the ovary in which they originated. From these simple leaves the plant develops others upward, larger and more complex, until reaching a maximum they return again to simplest forms through flower, fruit, and seeds. The oval form underlying all parts, and freely limiting the whole plant outline, often quite evidently.

Cells, of which all organisms are constructed, are at first, or become so as soon as they live and grow, whether separately or as members of communities, of the same shape, and they arrange themselves, even when they resign their form individually, into ranks of structure which follow these lines.

The oval is evidently the ground form of plants, and though not so easily seen, of animals also. Animals vary very much, and ovals are not all alike. General forms include many particulars, besides their elementary lines, which are also greater generalisations. Some of these lines may be perceived before the forms. It may, therefore, be well to consider briefly the varieties and elements of ovals, before the forms of more difficult more complex living animals.

To perceive the form common to the long leaves of grasses and the broad petals of poppies, to the worm and the sea-urchin, notions of form itself must be clear. Few realise how universal

form is, and how we neglect it; this is evident from the fact that we have so few common names for forms. Simple geometric forms and lines are likely to blind us. We see what we know and no more. Children should draw and make the forms of plants and animals with materials as nearly like them as possible. Plants with planes; clay only gives external form, not the inner construction. From one ground form several fruits can be made and converted one into another. Children will find the forms and combine them. They go further; one made the body of a shrimp out of a willow leaf, and another suggested a crab by folding a broad poplar leaf. Making helps knowledge. When we can express our own ideas of form in similar materials rightly, even if roughly, we begin to know. Form may be converted into words or into lines; both may deceive easily, if the object is made, ignorance cannot be hidden.

Ovals vary in shape, a bird's egg is the best example, but the egg of owl, partridge, and peewit differ greatly. The hen's egg is a well known, and good central type of an oval; others are spherical, elliptical, and conical. There is a very excellent selected collection at the Natural History Museum, in the bay set apart for birds. Eggs of reptiles are elliptical, some rather flattened at the sides. Plants, shells, and sea-urchins add another type, broad ovals, like the rose or poppy petals; while shells, insects, and fishes illustrate the irregular oval.

The ellipse is easiest to analyse. So confused and so fixed are our conceptions of form, it is necessary to say that elliptical figures made with arcs are not ellipses. The true ellipse has no arc in any part of it. To see this clearly the figure should be constructed; two common pins, stuck upright into a board, a bit of thread tied together at its ends, a little longer than the straight line between the two pins when it is tied, and put over them; then with a pencil point trace the ellipse, pressing against the thread and controlled by it. If the pins are brought near each other until but one is left, and a circle struck over the ellipse, the difference between the circle and ellipse will be clear.

The circumference of the circle is at the same distance from the centre at every point; that of the ellipse changes gradually. Any portion of the circumference of the circle will coincide with any other portion of the circumference; fractions of the ellipse will only coincide at three other places; like the square, it has four equal and similar sides, but they are continuous. These four quadrants are seen if a straight line is drawn through the pins, dividing the figure into equal halves; bisect this line and produce it both ways, and the ellipse will be divided into four equal parts. A quadrant of the ellipse may be considered until a better is found—an elementary line of the same value as the straight line and arc. It completes the alphabet of linear form; is the missing element of outline—the line of life, development, and movement.

Like the three primary colours these lines may be classed; colours are warm and cold, two warm—red and yellow—one

cold—blue. Lines are curved and straight, two curved and one straight. The characteristic of the new element is gradation, and by this it stands for life and development. One end is nearly straight, the line gradually curves more and more towards the other. The lines which form the square are named, but this has no name, it has not been seen. It stands generally for the lines with which all living things and movement are represented—all motion—and other most important forms. An element of primary importance. Four others like it put together continuously form the ellipse, but in so doing it respects the rights of its fellows. If set free it curls round still more and becomes a spiral. It is in its nature very like a spiral. In shells both forms are well seen; the outer lines of the cockle shell can be traced to the spiral of the snail in a collection of shells.

Some mathematicians have objected to this element for this reason; it stands for too many different curves. Very different creatures are included under one characteristic in natural science. Fish, elephant, tomtit, and cobra differ much, but all have a backbone. Curves may differ, but they are all graduated in curvature. In judging we must see there is but one curve. The string of a kite supported at two points—kite and hand—looks like one single curve; if the two supporting points are placed on a level, as in the skipping rope, the double curve is clearly seen; at this stage the test might be sensation, not mathematics. This element is more like the generalisations of natural than the elementary lines of exact science. If a better elementary line be provided for living form, let us have it; only let us have one. If outline, or linear form has no elements, or if, existing they baffle and evade us, we can have no elementary drawing, and we had better admit it and end it. Vowels are modifications of one sound; in a complete alphabet of form there might be several modifications of this line. A spiral is a graduated line, allied to this element and included under it, but quite worthy of a more direct representation. Elements are not all of equal value or alike; vowels differ from consonants; consonants from each other. These elementary lines are themselves wholes, and can be analysed into their own elements. Every line has length, direction, and shape. In the straight line all three coincide.

The quadrant of the eclipse has no name. This alone shows how little elementary form has been noticed. The difference in curved lines must be evident to all who draw. Authority and tradition hold to the arc and straight line, and they are accepted. Fortunately authorities begin to differ. In the "Elements of Drawing," published 1857, Prof. J. Ruskin emphasised this curve and its gradation (p. 267, ed. 1892). His authority confirmed in me the conclusion which I had already come to, probably through him, for he had given us branches of trees to draw in which the line is frequent and clear. This line was my starting point; it was clear more than twenty years before its general form was found. I call it "j"; it is something like

that letter in shape. A notation of line form is needed for dictation and for converting form more easily into words. This is part of an attempt to make a notation. These abstract forms and elements may help us to see better the general forms of higher animals we return to.

To try and find unity or general form in animals may seem hopeless, they are so very different. Horse and crab, shrimp and butterfly do not appear to have any general form common to all. In plants the general form underlying all is clear; it is easily seen in seeds and buds, their initial or resting states.

In oviparous animals the form of the egg is more perfect than it is in plants. In the highest of these—birds—the eggs are most perfect in form. An excellent case of typical specimens in the museum illustrates their variety; some are nearly spherical, others elliptical, conical, and some perfect ovals. Eggs of reptiles are elliptical. From eggs we derive our conceptions of the form and the name.

In some of the large classes—fishes and birds—the thin ground form is easily seen. In these, and in the higher animals, if we attend to the fundamental structure and the permanent form which protects vital parts, and are not diverted by external and variable appendages, the conclusion seems clear, that the oval is the ground form of animals also.

Animals are apparently most easily remembered or generalised in two or three positions, side, front, or back views; child and race draw animals in one of these positions.

The fish is leaflike in shape, ovate, irregular in profile, symmetrical dorsally and in front. Its front face is not very familiar, the general form is not changed by it. Fishes vary in both directions, back and profile, but there is no difficulty in seeing that the oval is their ground form.

The fish-like tadpole develops into frog or eft, two forms differing very little in general shape, but in the proportions of length to breadth and the loss of a tail. The tadpole first evolves those limbs which alter the appearance of animals so much. In relation to general form, their limbs are to be considered only as appendages. Fish that live and move in water require only simple and small organs of locomotion. Their boat-like bodies are adapted to easy movement in the medium they inhabit; but if a water animal rises to earth-life, organs of motion, legs or wings, or both appear. Frog, newt, and tortoise acquire legs, but their bodies retain the fish and the egg form.

Birds who inhabit air, earth, and water have the legs of lizards and fins of fishes largely developed, but the ground form is most distinctly seen. Adapted to rapid movements in air and water the wings at rest fold closely over the thorax, assuming its form, as the thorax itself, takes the shape of the heart it encloses and protects. The parts of both wing and thorax are illustrations of the elementary line. The feathers of the wing, like the scales of the fish, are themselves ovals or ovates, and when the wing is folded they exhibit a succession of radiating lines of graduated curvature,

beneath these each rib repeats the elementary curve in greater simplicity. In birds, although the whole form is more perfectly oval, the parts have greater freedom. The fish has no neck; with the development of legs the neck develops; but the bird retaining its general form, is built up of subordinate forms, head, body, and tail of similar shape. The inner essential vital organs of head and heart are protected by an outer covering which follows their shape, as the ovule is protected by the ovary in plants. In mammals, where the subordinate parts are so varied, these two ovals will guide us always to the one form we seek.

In mammals the limbs, coverings, complex structure, and varied aspects presented to us, add to the difficulty of perceiving general form. Living on land, they must move to collect food, and have organs for that purpose; but if they take to the water, the fundamental form becomes evident; seals and porpoises become fish-like again. To convert the seal into a dog its legs must be altered; compared with a greyhound, which runs quickly on land, the greatest alteration is in the hind legs. In the bird, head, thorax, and tail were separate ovals, but the tail was not structural. In the greyhound a third oval is added at the hips, which is permanent in its structure. These facts may help us to see the same series of forms in the human figure; man includes all. The limbs, which disturbed the general form in animals, restore to this, the highest and most beautiful, the original simple general shape. If the whole figure is enclosed as in a mummy case this becomes evident.

The mummy case suggests a chrysalis. In egg, caterpillar, chrysalis, and perfect insect, the same oval form is clear. Again, the appendages not found in the whole class must be abstracted; then lobster, crab, spider, and beetle will tell as surely and clearly as fishes and birds that they also are subject to the same form.

Form in the molluscs is definite, varied but united; a symphony of form, with the oval and its elementary line for theme, the elementary lines reveal its spiral nature and variety. A cockle-shell is limited by ovals of different shapes, modelled all over with radiating elementary graduated curves. In a large collection of shells the forms pass into each other gradually, but there can be no doubt of the type on which all are founded.

Lower animals cannot be detailed. Sea urchins and sea slugs and others will support this theory; perhaps *Volvox globata* might prove exceptional, but enough has been said to show that the egg of bird and ovary of plant are types of the general or ground form of all living things.

But there is much more. Movement is as characteristic of life as form; it is through the free spontaneous activity of the child the form we are considering comes. In inorganic forms there is but little change, in living things change is the rule, and the higher they are the greater their activities. We are considering some of the highest—bodily and mental. Life modifies material, and motion is nearly always associated with life. It

is said, all force is motion. Life is not the only force that is changing and modelling material into form; non-living materials move, and in their movements they embody the forms and curves of life. Water with its waves and billows, fountains and waterfalls, mists and clouds, flows from form to form, and subjects the very stones that are in it by its ceaseless activity to become, like its movements, rounded. In the flicker of restless flame these curves form and reform too quickly for the eye to follow. A bird as it flies, and a ball thrown through air, leaves the impression of these same graduated lines on the mind, but not so clearly as the path of a rocket or fireworks. The string of a kite, the threads of gossamer reverse these curves, while threads woven into fabrics repeat and multiply them in every fold and festoon of dress. Wind, like water, is always moving all that can be stirred in its wide region; the tips of tree branches are spinning continually in air forms and lines that rival in intricacy and repeat the shape of those made by the tips of a baby's fingers in the air, or are recorded in its later scribble.

Wherever there is life and activity, from the planets in their orbits to the tiniest living cell, wherever forces are modifying material, these oval forms and the elementary lines are found. These elements are neglected and unnamed.*

Education is the drawing out of power specially human. The power of creating knowledge, beauty, and the means of expression, words and lines, originate in man, are germinated or created in him. Both knowledge and its expression are unities of mind and material. Knowledge is a synthesis of objects, mind, and body; expression is also a union of mind, body, and outer material. The union of objects and mind is knowledge; language is a unity of mind, bodily organs, and outer material. From sensation to conception, from conception to expression, from seeing to thinking, from thinking to expression is a sequence, the whole of which is needed for education.

We were led from education to expression. Mind creates both knowledge and the means of expression—language. Form enters into both. Line appears to be a kind of language created by the necessities of expression. Inquiry into the nature of outline was necessary, and it shows that to be clear on one point the whole region, from boundary to centre, needs reconsideration. It involves form in nature, the elements of outline, the relation of form to thought and language, and to education, and more. The school is responsible, and should lead and direct. We see what it has done, or, rather, left undone in its own proper province. Before we see what further the child suggests, let us see what the school does.

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* *See* further, *Neglected Elements in Art Teaching*, a paper read before the Education Society, December 1887. Published in "Journal of Education," and "Transactions of the Teachers' Guild," 1887.

The school has an art of its own. It professes to teach by elements; it provides them, and they are accepted without question or investigation. The child prefers rudiments, whole, but rude forms, which it must analyse for itself. The school gives abstract form. The child prefers form connected either with objects, mental pictures, or with invention; it does not separate line and object, means of expression and thought. Abstract form interests man, because of the reasoning connected with it; to reasoning it possibly contributes; the lines are signs of previous thought. The child is expected to be interested in form alone, without thought; it might be, if action were allowed, but the school takes from drawing, or does not give, the most beautiful elements—those most agreeable and natural to the child to produce and to look at, and permits no movement. It gives so-called geometric elements, straight lines and arcs. The child runs rapidly over these rigid lines with its happy free scribble, and makes instead the more beautiful lines of life and motion. Its very first lines belong to higher mathematics. The school begins with straight lines and arcs to help simple geometry. The child prefers conics and parabolas. You must make a straight line perfectly first, says the school, but the child is human and prefers movement and very imperfect execution—men fighting, horses, ships. It is given a hard-pointed pencil and paper, accuracy is demanded, and the way to it is supposed to be by doing a very little well, slowly, laboriously; by little bits, rubbing out again and again. It loves freedom, let it work naturally, and it will use non-resisting means and materials, and free rapid execution, repeating the movement happily so that instead of a "grind" it plays; and play, not mathematics, is the living free spontaneous expression of its own creative spirit—the basis of all fine art. Instead of one line the child makes many; instead of bits and fragments it makes wholes; instead of stammering and stuttering it works directly. The school aims at utility, and is indifferent, or scorns as amiable weakness, beauty and æsthetics. Reading, writing, and arithmetic are taught not for their present use, nor for their educational value, but because they will be of use hereafter. It suppresses colour as a useless vanity, and preaches dulness. The child loves colour more than form, but does not separate them, it loves colour very bright, and is not ashamed to acknowledge it loves beauty also. The school holds that genius and talents are needed to draw, not that ability is gained by doing; that a long course of drawing from copies must precede design; the child designs as soon as it draws. Combination of lines is as easy to its active mind as scribble is to its active area

There is much more, showing that school and child are not quite in harmony with their drawing. It shows, too, what an old curiosity shop our school is. A jumble of dusty old world belongings and new raw products; patches from all sources made to supply demands not really understood; a bit of ancient

learning dovetailed into a fragment of modern science. There are no definite principles. "We go to nature" is up in large words outside, but nature does not include child nature nor mind. What is nature without thought? It supplies what is not wanted, and what is wanted is not in stock. It advertises elements. It never had them complete, and what it has are obsolete and unused.

The child begins with line. We have considered the nature and elements of line, and the mental activity of the child; but the bodily organs employed and the materials used should not be left out. Mind, body, and materials should work easily and happily together. Hand should be the ready servant of mind. All its powers should be developed. I saw recently a drawing lesson at a board school. The boys were all allowed to turn their books in any direction. This enabled them to draw one line well in one direction, always towards them. If the aim was to get a satisfactory result on paper, this arrangement would probably help towards it, but if the aim was to educate the hand it was useless and injurious. The hand should be trained to do all it can. Lines should be made in every direction and in different ways. All the joints from whole arm to fingers should have their exercise. Both hands should be used, and there are good reasons for using the hands with the eyes closed, as there are perhaps better reasons for feeling an object that is to be drawn as well as looking at it. There should be plenty of hand exercise, too; hardly any is required. The lines in the drawing are considered enough. Exercises need not be dull; they can be associated with invention. We want to draw out the powers of the hand fully, and for this above all there must be practice, and that not a little. The child will guide us.

It is sometimes difficult to know where to begin. In all art we must begin with the powers we have. "I cannot draw"; "I "cannot even make a straight line," is often said. The straight line is supposed to be the beginning of drawing. If we wait for the power to come we shall never be able to draw the straight line; ability, the power to do, comes itself from doing. We must do what we can if we would do more. If the straight line cannot be done, go lower, to the very beginning. The baby scribbles—all can do this; let us begin with it.

Scribble, the result of the child's free spontaneous activity, may be of great use; under control and guidance it will do the work wanted very well. We have already noted its (1) line of graduated curvature, but further it is (2) produced by continuous, rapid, and repeated action, (3) freely from the shoulder, (4) with non-resisting materials, (5) and it is done happily, freely, spontaneously; it is the expression of the child's own impressions, thought, or feeling. Copies are of subordinate value. If they help the child to express its own ideas better, that help is real; if they take its place they may be injurious.

In this scribble there is the germ of exercises which will develop the activity of body and of mind—that will correlate and unite action and thought. The hand, which is the organ of all formative expressive, and the fundamental activity of mind on which all thought, knowledge, and even skill depends can both be exercised and developed.

(1.) The line the child makes naturally in scribbling is not straight, but curved; not an arc, but a graduated curve. Its shape is determined by the structure of the arm, and perhaps the movement. If the hand is stretched out in front to its fullest extent and is moved outwards, it traces a line in the air which passes gradually from nearly straight in front to a rapid curve on the outer limits. This line, which is a result of the structure of the arm, is the easiest to make, and is pleasant to produce, for the child repeats it frequently. When the hand has reached its furthest limit, if it is brought back to the starting point with the same continuous movement, the result is a kind of ellipse or oval, the first figure of the alternative syllabus. In its free scribble the child often produces this figure, or some variation of it, or parts of it. It is the form we have already become familiar with. The characteristic form and line of living things—the line of Greek art—is the first line made by the child, and made of necessity from the structure of its arm.

Which should come first, the whole form or the elementary line, is a question that has been asked. Possibly either or both may do to begin with. The syllabus begins with the whole form, but I was clear about the line more than twenty years before the whole forms came. We generally begin with wholes. The ellipse will not mean so much to the child as to us, but it seems to stand for a generalisation already. The child delights to draw men, it simplifies or generalises them after its own way; the head is a circle, the body an ellipse; so that the ellipse is to it both simple and general. In our present state it seems a proper beginning. Some children may make lines first, lines that will be graduated curves. The teachers must decide from experience which way is best, ellipse or line.

(2.) All art teachers will agree on one point, doing develops power; power can be gained only by work. It has been said that if the work is pleasant the reward will not come. To get the hard work done willingly, even happily, is possible, and we should do it. In play the real nature of the child is expressed. "Man is not really man until he plays," Schiller says. Play does not mean disorder; it is often social and demands perfect discipline. Its hard work is taken willingly, not imposed from without. All fine art rests on play.

We demand accuracy. First catch the perfect child. Until the power to be accurate exists, we need not expect accuracy. We demand frequently what it is impossible for the child to give. We should first know what its powers are; we should form our standards from children's work, not from men's, nor

from imagination. The brush work done at the "Alma" School should be the standard for a part of this syllabus. It has been done under school conditions. Picked specimens might be selected, but if the whole work of each class were the standard, that would be by far the best. This would be better than ideal standards. For other portions of it the "Alma" work might also be the standard until better or different is produced. We know not the child yet, nor its powers, nor the order of their development.

We should draw out power by doing. The child shows how it can be done. It goes rapidly over and over, round and round. Repetition is just what is wanted, and this is delightful to the child, for it is natural to the structure and movement of the arms, and pleasant to its senses. The rapid movement is the innovation; it is opposed to all our established tradition. But we go to nature; this is her direction. We have no choice; we must follow, and we soon find it is right. All motion is subject to law. Skating and cycling is quicker than walking, but are not less direct. The rapid motion of the potter's wheel and the lathe assist materially to make the form produced. The child who makes lines at first with such intense concentration of energy at its finger tips and pencil point that the paper is cut through, is wasting power and reversing the method of nature; which seems to be rapid movement and non resisting materials, or soft clay should be given and incised lines made in it with a hard point.

In school this rapid continuous action which results in line can be disciplined easily. Some children are reckless at first, others too cautious. Therefore we can keep time and regulate the speed. The hand should immediately obey the will and intellect; at its swiftest speed it should be trained to go through points exactly and easily. If the movement is too slow the hand does not receive the impetus and grace the movement itself supplies. The motion itself helps very much to make the curves beautiful and true. This practice should form part of each lesson until the hand is able to work easily and with some certainty. It should not be confined to one direction, nor to one kind of line. Patterns may be designed to give unusual forms exercise. An ellipse slanting from right to left, as in ordinary writing, will be always easier than its reverse. Combined elements and interlacing forms may be run over a definite number of times. Coloured chalk may be sent over white lines, or the broad white line over which the chalk has gone several times may be outlined with another colour. The children themselves will find ways of extending this exercise if once they are started, and will probably give themselves more severe work than their teacher would think of doing. One specimen has been given (fig. 15) illustrating this. The white line has been half covered by a coloured line. This addition was voluntary, it requires some

control of the hand. Often half a class will add to the exercise given some additional practice of this kind. Another variation is to fill up the whole form with concentric forms without stopping from circumference to centre in a spiral fashion and back over the same line; or one end of the continuous line is made to pass each time through a point at the end or anywhere else, making a pattern something like a shell. In this way, using the structure of the arm, the free spontaneous activity of the child, and the force in the motion, we get our hard work done willingly, happily, and as naturally as a mountain stream turns in its play a mighty mill; while the power of doing is developed.

There is another gain. Before we can draw rightly our ideas must be clear. While accuracy of form is demanded no attempt is made to form in the child right conceptions. In the cherry the conception controlled the drawing. A child will draw a box from memory, from a copy, and from the box itself, and make the same mistakes in each drawing. Its conceptions are stronger than its senses. Children confuse oval, ellipse, and circle at first. This rapid movement helps to form the idea while the hand makes it; by muscular activity it gets knowledge of the form. For this alone the rapid exercise would be useful; while making the form it is impressed on the mind. Impression and expression help conception, and all help each. Outer action helps inner mental activity. We can sometimes perceive form better by touch than by sight. A class of 13 students were shown a bivalve shell and asked to draw it. Only three got the shape right, a graduated curve. They were asked to feel but not look at it and repeat, and only three were wrong.

(3.) Freehand often means cramped fingers and indirect drawing—fifty little touches to a line five inches long, rubbed out, perhaps twenty times, in parts and patched up. The whole arm is used by the child when scribbling, and its structure shows it is well adapted for this free action and for graduated curvature. Rapid action over a smooth surface is more easily directed and controlled than a slow movement, deeply incised in the substance of the paper. There is less resistance and more help from bodily structure and the mechanical movement. But both hands and all parts of hand and arm should be used—wrist, hand, fingers.

(4.) Non-resisting materials the child selects, and the pavement artist knows their value. The misty window-pane, the sea-shore sand, the wet finger-tip, the leading of water over a smooth surface are some of the child's suggestions. Chalk and blackboard, brush and colour, charcoal or coloured chalk on paper we can adopt. Brush and water on the blackboard are the readiest materials for us; whatever can be most easily used should be used; drawing in the air with the finger tip is not to be despised.

I cannot here give details of material, methods of teaching, or appliances. Hardly two schools are under the same conditions. The teacher can arrange this. Blackboards and white or coloured chalk are the easiest to get. There are several kinds of boards. The ordinary school blackboard, even when small, is too heavy. A long board fixed on the wall, but so constructed that its direction can be altered, has this advantage: it compels the student to stand, and this is the best position, for the whole arm can then move freely from the shoulder. Canvases on stretchers, as used for oil painting, but blackened, can be had of various sizes, to fit into the ordinary school desk. Some of these are still in use after ten years' service. Strawboards of different thicknesses and sizes are inexpensive and can be used either blackened or not.

Standing is the best position for the blackboard exercises, with the board slanting. Horizontal and vertical positions are not so good. The chief point to consider is that the arm should move freely from the shoulder. It is also good exercise to use the brush simply with water on the blackboard; under similar conditions to fix paper on the board and draw on it with charcoal or coloured chalks, or with brush and colour. Later, paper and pencil may be used in the ordinary way, except that the movements should include the whole arm and the lines should be direct.

If no other materials but the usual ones are to be had, the freehand exercises can still be done, and when the arm can do its work, the hand and fingers should not be forgotten. Brush-work will exercise these, but the blackboard drawing will help to the better use of the brush.

(5.) Lastly, we come round again to the starting point. These lines, vague and imperfect, are expressions of the child's own impressions and feelings, made happily spontaneously, results of the play impulse; they are not mere copies. The first suggestions may have been received from others in some cases, as in language, but there is in the child favourable receptive conditions; language is soon learned by the child, for the original conditions which first produced speech exist in every child. It enjoys the expression of its own ideas, when power to do so is gained.

These lines combine the free activities of body and mind. The movement and sensations of touch please the child, and so too does the line it has made. Feeling and will are associated with the hand before the lines are associated with thought and knowledge. Later, when lines are used to express ideas and feelings, all the powers are connected and correlated, from knowledge to expression. Then there is some difficulty. Knowledge is the result of a process which begins with sensation; to work from knowledge as a source is easier to the child, than to work from nature direct; to see and to know are unlike and yet like. It is easier to express what is known, than to form a conception

from objects and express it at one time. The child has to learn to see; there are few things so difficult as seeing. In drawing there are two sources of ideas—mind and nature. To go to mind is easiest, but we must also go to nature. Here there are difficulties to the child we do not recognise.

In drawing for little children we do little but give copies. We do not expect the child to express itself. Copies express the knowledge of others; the child must go through the whole sequence to get that knowledge; it cannot get its knowledge from another, for knowledge is a unity of itself and nature. We cannot give Michael Angelo's knowledge of an eye to a child by giving it a copy of it, translated by another from his statue into line. The child must get his own knowledge of eyes from eyes and translate for himself; copies may help him, but not Michael Angelo's. Some early master whose mind and knowledge is in sympathy with his own, may help more. Archaic art, the early art of the race, is more in harmony with it. Our pre-Raphaelites insisted on important educational principles. Copies made on its own plane, after its manner, entering into its thought, may help the child to express itself. The child tries to express its own thought before it imitates natural objects. Imitation of nature is a late stage. In its earlier stages thought is intimately connected with its drawing. Inventive drawing involves thought; drawing from imagination comes before drawing from objects. To go to nature is right, but it must be through the child's nature. Education is involved in the efforts to express our own ideas, not to copy others.

The teaching is supposed to be collective, not individual. Into details I cannot enter.

We have kept to line all along, but expression, like impression, should be varied. If the child loves movement it also loves colour—one of the first things to excite its senses; it is associated inseparably with more constant characters, as form. Colour attracts the bee to the flower for unconscious service, and wherever attractive colour exists we may suspect there is useful work to be done close by. Much that has been said of outline applies to colour. If the child is a guide to its own education we cannot ignore colour; it is always a delight; it leads to drawing; it stimulates the wish to draw better; it helps to see.

We are told colour cannot be taught. What can be taught? Cannot sense perception be cultivated? Cannot colour combinations be discovered by experiment? Our school does not train the senses, but no one will maintain now that ear-training is impossible. Why not the eye? "You cannot teach colour harmonies." That I venture to doubt. "You cannot teach a child to paint like Turner or Titian." No; we insist that child and man are unlike. We cannot teach them to write like Shakespeare or Burns, but we teach all to read. All must gain their own knowledge and skill. All have the same organism, the

difference is in degree. Much can be done, but the school does but little towards forming clear perceptions of form or colour. It is probable that the child will again lead us to the right way.

The line and form most natural to the child's arm was found to be the best for it; so the colour most attractive to the child is best. Colour also has a physical basis; bright pure colour is the delight of the child, even crude and raw colour. The spectrum or the rainbow may be the standards.

When we see that the child demands colour, and by our principle of following nature must have it, we ask, what is to be done? We may get rid of systematic rules, but we cannot always teach "people to draw as country lads learn to ride, without saddle or stirrups." They will learn in a natural way, however systematic our teaching. Some exercises are wanted, to learn the nature of water, the powers of the brush, and the methods of using it. Mere exercises are unnatural. I was watching the child, considering form in nature, learning a little of early Greek art, and inquiring how to give the child colour at the same time; a few experiments soon showed that something more than exercises could be devised.

The Greek began with lines. Even lines with a brush are not easy. The first lines on the vases were made mechanically. The brush was fixed as a chisel is fixed at a lathe, and the vase revolved, and the lines were made easily. The first free lines are simple kinds of patterns; while making these lines, strokes peculiar to the brush asserted themselves. The brush is ovate in shape, and a portrait of itself is its most easy product, as the hand moved these strokes became longer than the brush. In ovate forms the imagination of the artist saw, beside patterns, the general form of fishes, cuttlefish, and birds. This sent the artist back to look at fishes and birds again, and the forms improve. But the free strokes of the brush made, like the child's, for sensuous pleasure, for the pleasure of the downward graduated pressure of touch, rather than horizontal muscular movement of scribble—both are included, but touch is supreme—become the favourite forms or strokes of Greek ornament. The brush, colour, touch, and movement determines its form. If the brush point is not interrupted by a plane it will make in space a line of gradual curvature; when it touches the surface it spreads out and makes two of similar shape, symmetrically opposed. The outlines of the ovate stroke repeats symmetrically the elementary graduated curve.

Continuous combinations of this curve may be found that may be varied in form, and also by pressure. The brush exercises the sense of touch most, while freehand drawing appeals more to muscular movement.

Beside lines and strokes, the brush represents surface by tints easily. A surface of colour can be modelled easily into shape if it is done quickly before the colour dries. Rapid line work is objected to; this must be done quickly or not at all. In this

way the brush is used for drawing with colour. The child does not separate form and colour; drawing with colour is the natural way of beginning, and of working for some time. It is an important principle, opposing our established methods, but adopted and supported by both Rossetti and Ruskin. Drawing with the brush is also easier after a little practice. This is recognised in the syllabus, but it might be brought out more.

To learn the various powers of the brush and its capabilities, so that imitation of nature will be easier, is one of the intentions of this brushwork. The patterns are an end in themselves, but they are also means to a higher end.

The various powers of the brush required analysis. An equal even line is for some time difficult to make with the ordinary brush. It can be made easily if the hand is fixed on the paper and the motive power supplied by the arm. The freehand drawing prepares for the brush. The ovate strokes are also a little difficult to balance. A boy discovered an easier beginning; he found that a rat could be made by one touch of his brush, adding a few short strokes for legs and tail. The shape of a brush is ovate; fill it with colour and press it on its side and it impresses at one stroke its own portrait, an ovate form. Here was the general form of plants and animals, made at once easily—more easily than with scribble. It seemed exactly the form to begin with.

This "blob," however, can be made with too little skill, quite mechanically, for it is simply printed. It has been used generally in a way that is directly the opposite of my intention. It was never intended to be made into patterns for copies, but to be an easy means of invention and of expression. For babies in the kindergarten it can be made to represent plants, flowers, insects, birds, animals, and even figures; but these babies make their own inventions with it, and their own creations. It can be used also for number combinations. The ease with which the blob is made allows the mind freedom to concentrate its powers on other things; direction, for instance, is an element in every line drawn; patterns might be made to exercise this element, the conditions being that every second blob shall be at right angles to the first, or at any other angle.

The blob is graduated in colour as well as shape. By using two colours in one brush, or two brushes, vari-coloured effects are obtained. The mixture of the colours help to knowledge of colour.

It was to be expected that when the blob appeared it would be made into patterns for copies, and that, in harmony with this the child would be told what colours to mix instead of being helped to discover combined colours by their own experiments. This, however, appears not to be the intention of the syllabus. It aims at training the sense of colour, and by experiments of their own to get the children to see the results of mixing colours in various ways. This section is not fully nor systematically

worked out. It requires a term, and in my own practice the summer term is given entirely to colour study and its application. There is so much to be done that is not in the syllabus; but provision is made, however, for colour study and for drawing with colour in the syllabus.

The oval blob is made passively by impression; the ovate stroke by action. Its length will depend on the parts of the hand or arm used—fingers, hands, or arm. This form is most characteristic of the brush, and is made of the same elements as the scribble, but in an opposite way.

All that has been said about invention or design applies to brushwork. If but two lines are put together in order intentionally, inventive drawing begins.

Brain and heart are both self-active; the child's body and mind are always in motion. I will not repeat, but may add that order, measured space, and repetition are the beginnings of simple design. This appeals to children; they love the rhythm, the sound, and repetition of nursery rhymes, and their early patterns embody in form the same sense of order, measure, and repetition. Copies made with them, with their help, or as suggestions for them to work out in other ways, are useful if they help the child to express itself.

Brushwork aims at cultivating the sense of colour and form, the sense of touch, and the control of muscular movement, at exercising and developing invention, and mental activity, at helping elementary design and knowledge of form and knowledge of nature through drawing with colour, at giving knowledge of the instruments and materials used, so that imitation may be easier. It is hoped and expected that it will also have some effect on the children; that it will reveal to them their own powers, and give them confidence in the value of work and doing. I have said:—

"Brushwork drawing should be creative. It should not be mere copying. No set of printed patterns will be given for copies by anyone who cares for education. Any publisher could produce such copies easily. Against all such we must protest; as illustrations and as showing the possibilities they might have use. It is because invention with chalk and brush is so easy the educator wants them. That they may reveal to the child the powers it has; to relieve the really necessary practice-work of the hand by invention; to give the child some joy in its work and some confidence, so that it may feel that it can stand and go on alone; that it may learn from itself the reality of self-activity and self-help, may feel the delight of gaining power by effort and know what education is; so that it may from personal experience oppose to the utmost that deadly heresy, in which even parents and teachers instruct and encourage children, that artistic power is a gift, a chance product of partial nature, not given to them; that they cannot draw,

design, or express their own ideas without talent, and probably that is not given to them."*

There is more to be said. Form enters into most studies and many lessons. If line drawing is a second means of expression, a language of form, it might, it should be used at most lessons. If each child has a blackboard, a collective answer can be given where only one voice can speak. The observations of all can be seen; the teacher can learn the thought of all. In what we call the "object lesson" drawing might be used as freely as speech and we should come nearer the intention of Pestalozzi. This we have never fully understood. What we call the "object lesson," he called the A B C der Anschauung. He did not separate objective teaching from other lessons, it was the foundation of all. He saw that form was at the basis of knowledge, and he sought its beginnings. As he worked, it divided into two alphabets, one of observation, the other of form. In his A B C of observation he expected the children to look at objects, to think about them for themselves, and to express their own thoughts, in their own way, by language. But he wanted them to express their ideas by form also; to use this second language. He tried hard to find the elements of lines and to construct an A B C of form, so that form might be expressed as easily as speech; and that form might be converted into words, words to form. But the curves of life and motion he had not. In the object lesson, and in natural science we can more nearly do what he intended; while the use of drawing to express thought will bring it nearer to this, its natural function, than formal drawing lessons.

Another note which is also connected with practical work. Combination of the elementary lines, more especially the new one, lead to a new kind of design. The foliated ornament most easy and natural to the brush suggest plant forms, and we are told constantly on all manner of authority that our patterns must be founded on plant life. I cannot here discuss this. The Greek ornament is brush play, it suggests the whole principle of plant growth by its radiation, but it arises from the nature of the materials, instrument, hand, and thought of the workmen. It is not copied from objects, nor consciously founded on them; what nature there is in it comes from the union of mind and objects and their essential harmony. In line work on the blackboard or on paper, can be repeated; the materials, chalk, hand, and thought, unite to produce a result which is decorative and beautiful. In places like Whitechapel, where plants are rare, the combination of these forms is enjoyed by the boys, who are following the precedent of the Greeks. There are in these line combinations possibilities of abundant variation and novelty. They are of undoubted use in training the hand to line, reserved, severe, but beautiful. Several illustrations are given with this paper. It is the intention of the syllabus to develop pure line,

* "Brushwork," published by the Sesame Club, Dover Street, W.

as well as the powers of the brush, combinations of abstract form, as well as natural.

A sketch of work beyond the new syllabus might be useful. Obviously it only deals with a small portion of the subject. When a school can work as the Alma school has done, it need not stop but go further. The aim of the alternative syllabus is to call out power; when power is developed, we should go further. Personally I give but one term each year, or 10 lessons, to the work in the syllabus. To adapt work to elementary schools is not easy; there are difficulties which should be overcome; children require good colour to study. It is much to be hoped that more may be done to get flowers for use in the drawing lessons of the children in our elementary schools.

EBENEZER COOKE.

LIST OF ILLUSTRATIONS.

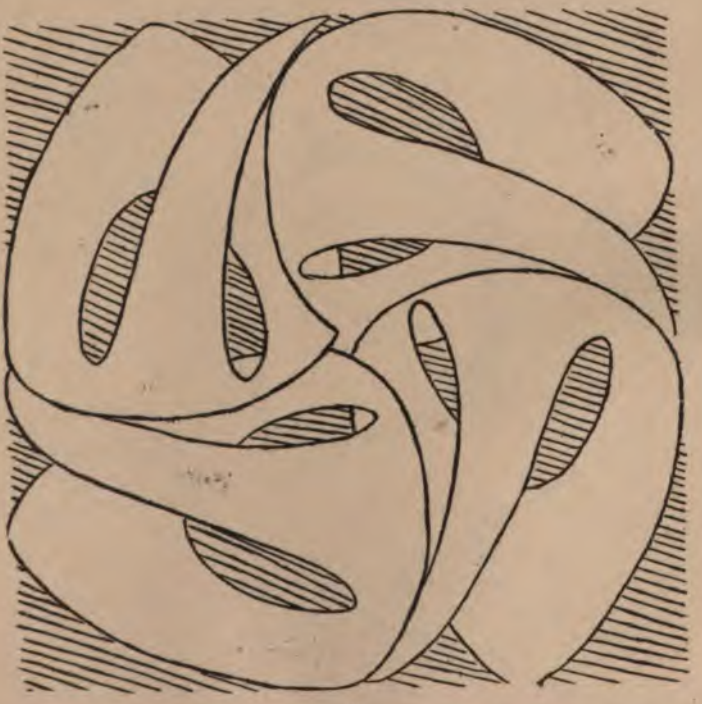
FIGS. 1 to 11.—COMBINATIONS OF ELEMENTARY LINE DRAWN WITH PENCIL.

FIG. 12.—LINE COMBINATIONS: EXERCISE ON BROWN PAPER WITH WHITE, BLACK, AND RED CHALK.

FIGS. 13 AND 14.—COMBINATIONS OF OVALS AND ELEMENTARY LINES IN WATER COLOUR.

FIG. 15.—WHITE CHALK AND BROWN PAPER EXERCISES WITH WHOLE FORMS. AN ADDITIONAL LINE WITH DARKER CHALK ADDED VOLUNTARILY.

1



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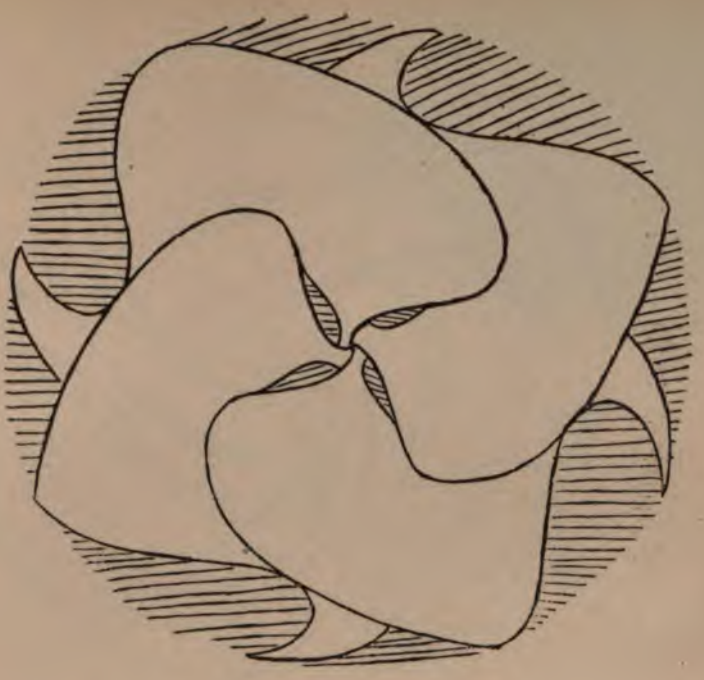
1 and 2.—Combinations of Elementary Line drawn with Pen



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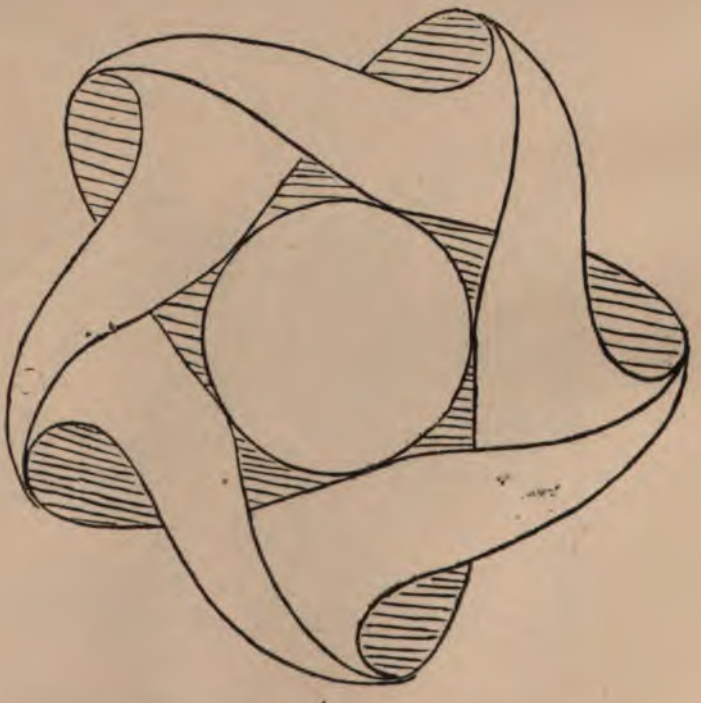

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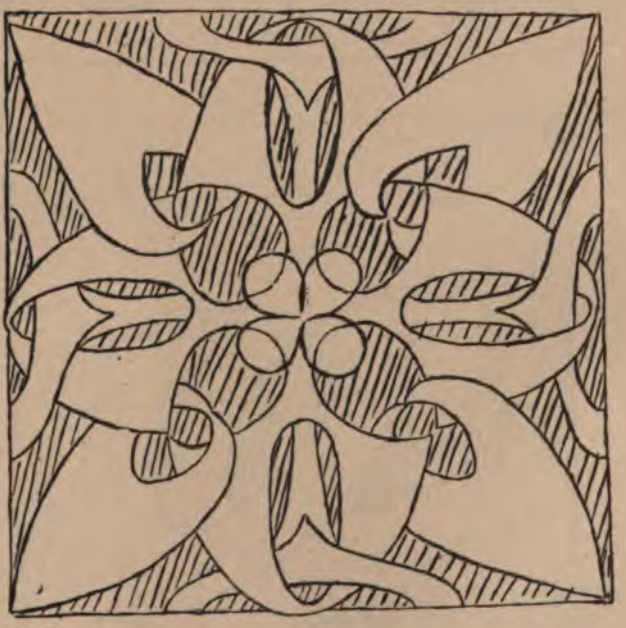
3 and 4.—Combinations of Elementary Line drawn with Pencil.

5



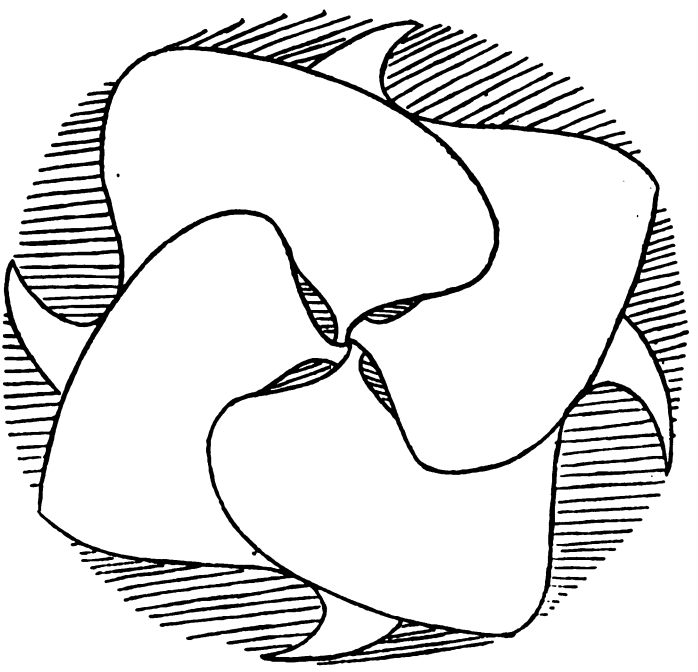
6

5 and 6.—Combinations of Elementary Line drawn with Pencil.

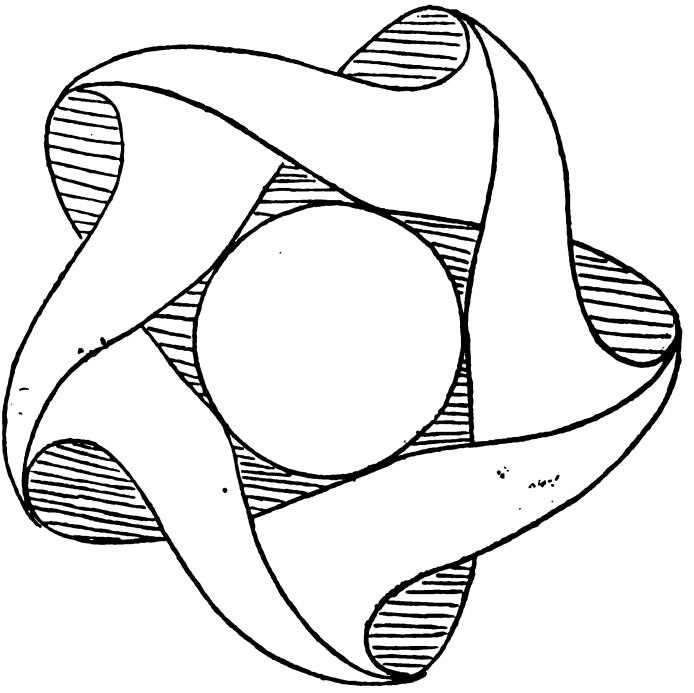
1

2

1 and 2.—Combinations of Elementary Line drawn with Pencil.



3



4

3 and 4.—Combinations of Elementary Line drawn with Pencil.

5

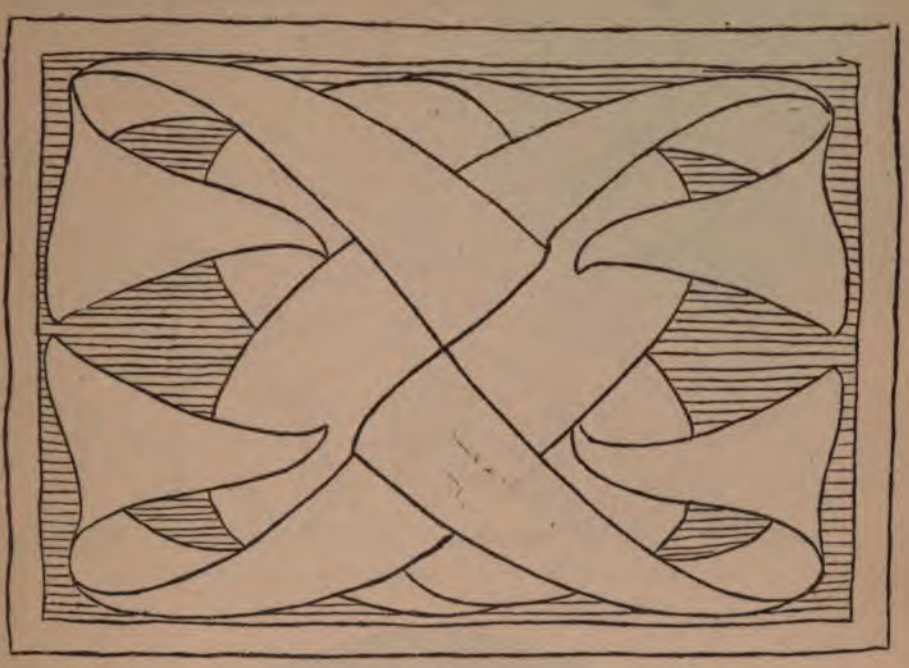
6

5 and 6.—Combinations of Elementary Line drawn with Pencil.

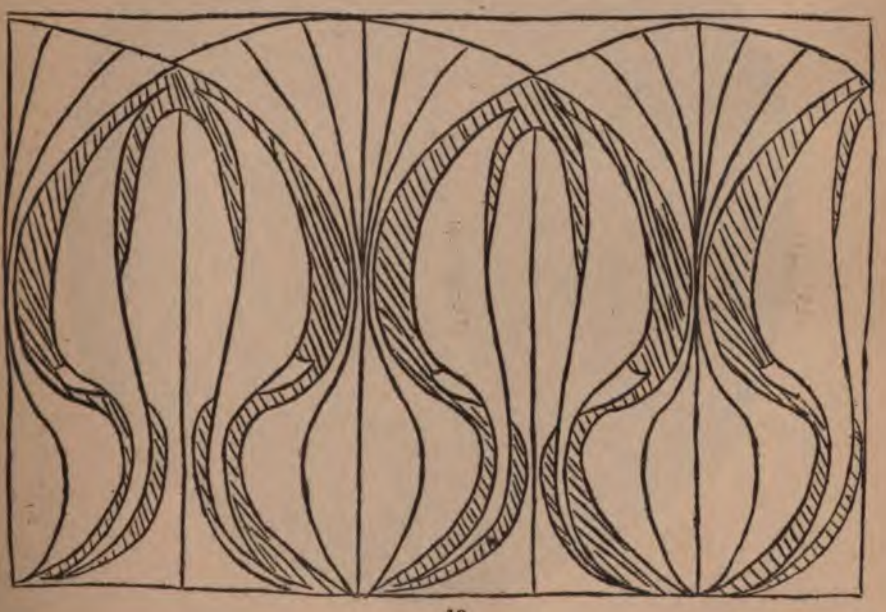
7

8

7 and 8.—Combination of Elementary Line drawn with Pencil.



9



10

9 and 10.—Combinations of Elementary Line drawn with Pencil.

11.—Combination of Elementary Line drawn with Pencil.

12.—Line Combinations: Exercise on Brown Paper with White, Black, and Red Chalk.

13

14

13 and 14.—Combination of Ovals and Elementary Lines in Water Colour.

15

15.—White Chalk and Brown Paper Exercise with whole Forms. An additional Line with darker Chalk added voluntarily.

Domestic Economy Teaching in England.

I.—Domestic Economy under the Elementary Education Acts.

Among the numerous educational developments brought about by the Education Department of this country the education of girls in the domestic sciences may be classed, when considering the economical bearing of education upon the general welfare of the industrial classes, as one of the most important.

Previous to the passing of the Education Act of 1870, the only subjects taught to girls in elementary schools which could in any way be said to have any special connexion with the home life of the girls, were knitting and needlework. From the year 1846 sewing was mentioned as a subject expected to be taught to girls in elementary schools, and in 1862 it was made a compulsory subject. But the needlework was not taught upon any scientific or organised basis. Girls were taught to sew, it is true, and to sew very neatly, but they were rarely taught to cut out, they learned no system of measurement, and they were not taught to use materials to the best advantage.

As the result of the passing of the Education Act of 1870, elementary schools sprang up all over the country. Year by year additional subjects were added to the Code curriculum as admissible in the elementary schools.

Theory of domestic economy as a Code subject.

One of the first additional subjects which was suggested for girls was domestic economy. This was placed among those class subjects in the Code, to encourage the teaching of which an additional grant was given by the Education Department. At a later stage domestic economy was also included as a subject for girls in the schedule of specific subjects in the Code.

The teaching of this subject was confined to theory. The lessons consisted of instruction on—

Syllabus of instruction in domestic economy.

(*a.*) The kinds of food suited to the requirements of the human body.

(*b.*) The composition and nutritive value of different kinds of foods.

(*c.*) The choice and preparation of foods.

(*d.*) Warming and cleaning the dwelling.

(*e.*) Ventilation.

(*f.*) General rules of health and the management of the sick room.

But it is obvious that as special subjects more especially taught in boys' schools, *e.g.*, chemistry, physics, mechanics, &c., began to find their way into school time-tables for boys, some question would arise as to the possibility of developing the practical education of girls.

Cookery as a Code subject.

The deplorable ignorance of the women of the poorer classes upon the subject of cookery, the waste, and want of knowledge of practical household economy which often brought about unnecessary poverty, attracted the attention of the Education Department, and it was resolved to include cookery in the list of subjects in the Code for girls' schools, with the direct intention of not only encouraging cookery as a subject of educational value in the schools, but of doing something towards promoting home comfort, higher morality, and an improved bill of health among the masses represented by the children attending the elementary schools throughout the country.

Intention of the Education Department.

Some small attention had been given to teaching cookery in this country before the Education Department offered a grant for it in the elementary schools.

Cookery in institutions.

It was quite usual for girls resident in orphanages or charitable institutions to be thoroughly instructed in this and other of the domestic arts.

Cookery in villages.

Again, in country villages ladies would sometimes allow the elder school girls to get a little practical teaching in cookery under a cook in a private house. Classes had even been organised in towns in an experimental way, but the number of girls who had the advantage of this teaching was necessarily very limited, and the teaching was not systematic.

Mr. Buckmaster's cookery class.

In 1870 public cookery classes, including lectures on food, were started by Mr. Buckmaster, and were continued for about 10 years at South Kensington. There is no doubt that these classes served a very useful purpose. In addition to giving valuable instruction they roused much interest in the subject of cookery. They showed the possibilities of class-teaching, and helped to bring about a desire for more widespread means of instruction.

Cookery scheme submitted to Education Department.

In 1881 a scheme of cookery instruction suitable for elementary schools was submitted to the Education Department by Liverpool, together with an estimate of the cost of conducting cookery classes.

Government grant for cookery.

In the Code of 1882–83, and in subsequent Codes, cookery was included among the subject for girls. A grant of 4*s*. per head for each girl who had completed a course of demonstration and practical lessons in cookery was offered, provided that the Education Department was satisfied that the instruction was suitable and thorough.

The Government grant offered by the Education Department was not, however, taken advantage of generally. There seemed many difficulties to be overcome. There was the initial expense

of providing kitchens, stoves, and plant. School boards were not very willing to provide these at first. But here and there an enthusiastic lady member of a board, a head schoolmistress, or some other person interested in the subject, succeeded in enlisting the sympathy and help of school boards or school managers, with the result that provision was made for the teaching of cookery to some of the girls in the upper standards in some of the elementary schools. For several years properly equipped cookery kitchens were not very numerous even in towns. The lessons were often given in class-rooms in which stoves and necessary fittings were placed, the rooms being used as ordinary class-rooms when not being used as kitchens.

Objections of parents in the earlier days of cookery teaching.

Another of the difficulties which had to be overcome was the objections raised by parents to the girls going to the cookery lessons. Extraordinary as it may seem in the face of the general ignorance on culinary matters, mothers frequently complained that their daughters "wasted their time" in going to the cookery lessons, and they have even been known to say that "they did not wish their girls to learn to do such dirty work!" This state of things has, however, been overcome. As time went on the subject became more popular. As girls passed from one standard to another, and became fairly well grounded in the primary methods of cookery, the public generally, and parents in particular, began to realise that some really definite practical training, which was likely to prove distinctly valuable to the girls in after-life, was being provided by those responsible for the education of the masses.

In order to show how distinct a footing the subject of cookery has gained in the primary schools of this country a few statistics may prove useful.

Comparative number of cookery pupils.

During the first year in which the Education Department included it in the Code the number of girls who received instruction qualifying for the Government grant was 7,597 from 457 schools. These numbers rapidly increased, and

in 1885–86	there were	12,438	girls from	643	schools.
„ 1886–87	„	24,526	„	749	„
„ 1887–88	„	30,431	„	882	„
„ 1888–89	„	42,159	„	1,030	„
„ 1889–90	„	57,539	„	1,294	„
„ 1890–91	„	66,820	„	1,501	„
„ 1891–92	„	68,291	„	1,593	„
„ 1892–93	„	90,794	„	2,020	„
„ 1893–94	„	108,192	„	2,322	„
„ 1894–95	„	122,325	„	2,577	„
„ 1895–96	„	134,930	„	2,729	„

Observations by Her Majesty's Inspectors.

This enormous increase in the work was watched with much interest by the Education Department. Her Majesty's Inspectors were requested to specially note and report to the

Reasons for Government grant being withheld.

Department upon the progress of the subject. In many instances, particulars respecting which are not included in the above figures, it was found necessary to withhold the Government grant where Her Majesty's Inspectors were not satisfied with any one of the following points :—

(*a.*) The accommodation provided for the girls.
(*b.*) The equipment of the kitchens or class-rooms.
(*c.*) The qualification of the teacher.
(*d.*) The instruction given.

Opinions of Her Majesty's Inspectors during the earlier stages of this work.

That much excellent work was done even in the earlier stages of the experiment may be gathered from such remarks as the following from the reports of Her Majesty's Inspectors :—"The "cookery classes are doing good work." "Very successful "efforts are being made to introduce the system of teaching "practical cookery to a number of schools collectively." "It "is gratifying to report that there is no diminishing of interest "in cookery after the attempt is once made." "The experiment "is remarkably successful." "The teaching is thoroughly "effective; the girls keenly enjoy their lessons; they are "taught to be cleanly, careful, and economical, and such "teaching is likely to be of permanent value."

Provision of kitchens and cookery centres.

Under most of the larger school boards, in some voluntary schools, and in a few rural schools may now be found well-built and well-equipped cookery kitchens. Where no provision can be made on the premises for a kitchen, as is often the case in the older schools, suitable centres, approved by Her Majesty's Inspectors, are arranged at which the girls may attend for their cookery lessons.

Equipment of kitchens.

Stoves, &c.

The Education Department requires that the equipment of the kitchens shall be appropriate, and that the stoves and other appliances shall be such as are usually found in the homes of the working people of the neighbourhood. Large fireplaces which require a great deal of fuel are discouraged.

Cookery by gas.

Cookery by gas is allowed to be taught, but only as an additional means of cooking. Although gas-stoves are much more largely used now than was the case a few years ago, they are never likely to supersede the ordinary cottage fireplace, the "perpetual" oven in the wall so usually found in country cottages, or the artisan's small kitchen stove and oven.

Instruction in cookery.

Definite instructions for the teaching of cookery are laid down by the Education Department, and these require that—

(*a.*) Thorough instruction shall be given in the first principles and primary methods of cookery, and that the teaching shall be systematic and progressive.
(*b.*) Strict attention shall be paid to cleanliness, order, and economy.
(*c.*) The dishes taught shall be suited to the wants of the working classes living in the neighbourhood.
(*d.*) The children shall have a definite knowledge of the dietary value of the foods cooked.

Syllabus of cookery instruction.

A model syllabus is also drawn up and included in the Code as a guide to the teacher. This includes bread-making and baking, stewing, boiling, steaming, roasting and baking meat, frying, cold meat cookery, cooking fish, vegetables, making soups, pastry, milk puddings, and invalid cookery. Dishes are named in the syllabus, but this is again only as a guide to the teacher. The Education Department requires that in all cases the proposed scheme of work for the year shall be submitted to the Department, and a list of dishes taught during the year in a school, together with the record of the instruction given, is required to be submitted to Her Majesty's Inspector each year.

Scullery work.

Cleaning forms an important part of the cookery lessons. The girls are taught to wash up the utensils, &c., to clean the knives, scrub the pastryboards and tables, polish the tins, clean the sink, and leave the kitchen, cupboards, &c. neat and clean.

Age of girls.

Graduated stages of instruction in cookery.

The average age of girls when they commence cookery is about 11 years. Three courses of instruction are generally arranged, graduated to suit Standard IV., Standard V., and Standards VI. and VII.

The primary principles and methods of cookery are emphasised in the more advanced stages.

In all the stages the teacher is able to vary her lessons by applying the cookery principle, which may happen to be the subject of the lesson, to various dishes in accordance with the particular needs of the neighbourhood, the local resources, and the season of the year. The various methods of using up cold meat, cold vegetables, odd scraps of bread, &c., &c., are demonstrated, and teachers sometimes find it a good plan to let girls bring such food from their own homes in order that they may get plenty of practice.

Arrangement of cookery classes.

The number of girls who may be present at a cookery class at one time is 18 for a practice class and 54 for a demonstration. Experience has shown that this number forms as large a class as can be successfully taught by a teacher single-handed. If more girls are present a second teacher is also required to be present to assist in the teaching. The lessons of a course extend over 40 hours, during 20 hours of which the girls are required to actually cook with their own hands.

Management of cookery classes.

The management of the cookery classes is frequently delegated by school boards to committees of ladies who from time to time devise schemes by which the interest of the girls is kept up in the school cookery classes. These schemes include exhibitions of dishes prepared and cooked entirely by the girls themselves, cookery competitions to which the parents and the public are admitted to watch the girls cooking, prizes being given for the best dishes and for smartness and neatness in working. The sympathy of the public and the interest of the parents are thus enlisted, and the popularity of the subject is increased.

Testimony of parents.

Those who are engaged in teaching and managing the cookery classes now receive frequent testimony from mothers as to the increased usefulness of the girls after attending one or two courses of cookery lessons, whilst it is by no means unusual for girls applying for situations after leaving school to state that they learned cookery at school. This seems to prove that the girls themselves also recognise the value of some definite training in this domestic science.

Provision and disposal of food.

The food cooked is usually sold at cost price. Sometimes dinners are cooked for members of the teaching staff who desire to remain at the school at mid-day. Cheap dinners for school children are sometimes prepared in the winter. These require very good management and careful purchasing in order to prevent loss. This plan, however, serves a useful purpose in teaching the girls to deal with large quantities of food.

Marketing.

Some of the best teachers occasionally take the girls to market in order to teach them the best and most economical method of purchasing foods. It is not always easy to manage this with elementary school classes. When it is done it is certainly a most valuable additional training for the girls.

Note books.

Note books are, as a rule, kept by each girl attending the classes. In these are written notes on theory, recipes of dishes made, and special points to be remembered in connexion with the lessons. Girls who preserve their note books until they have been through the three stages of cookery arranged for elementary schools usually possess a valuable little compilation of useful hints and recipes to refer to in after life.

Provision of staff for cookery classes.

The provision of teachers for cookery classes has been undertaken by several training schools of cookery in different parts of the country. When the Education Department first recognised cookery as a Code subject teachers were scarce. In consequence of the great demand for cookery teachers, the number of training schools increased, and large numbers of teachers were trained by these schools. The Department laid down as a condition of recognising the certificates granted by the training schools that the minimum period of training should be six months; but some training schools require their students to be trained for at least one year.

Minimum period of training.

Schools of cookery recognised by the Education Department.

There are now 27 training schools of cookery recognised by the Education Department as centres for training teachers of cookery. These are as follow:—

*Battersea Polytechnic Institute.
*Chester.
Devon County Council.
East Suffolk County Council.
*Edinburgh.
Glasgow, West End School.
*Manchester School of Domestic Economy.
National Society's Training School, Lambeth.

*Bath.
*Bristol.
*Glasgow.
*Gloucestershire.
*Leeds.
*Liverpool.
Preston.
*Sheffield.
*Wakefield.
*Wiltshire.
} Branches of the National Union for the Technical Education of Women in Domestic Sciences.

*Norfolk and Norwich.
Northampton.
*Newcastle-on-Tyne.
*Leicester.
*Nottingham Technical School for Women.
Salisbury.
*South Kensington National Training School of Cookery.
*South Wales and Monmouth, Cardiff.
Staffordshire County Council.

Those marked * are also training schools for laundry work.

Cookery in rural schools.

The introduction of cookery in rural schools as part of the curriculum for girls is in many respects more difficult than in urban schools. But in country districts, where very often the wages are low, the food resources are more scarce than in towns, and the means of obtaining continued education after leaving the day school very limited, the teaching of cookery is quite as badly needed as in towns. In rural districts there can be no "centre" system for teaching the girls, as the distance from one village to another precludes such an arrangement. Thus it is that cookery kitchens exist in very few village schools, and cookery is not taught to any appreciable extent. At the present moment, in hundreds of village day schools, no provision whatever is made for giving the girls instruction in any practical domestic subject except needlework. The only chance they have of getting any teaching in such a subject as cookery is after leaving the day school when an opportunity may occur of attending a course of 10 or 12 lessons organised by the County Technical Education Committee, the lessons being given by a peripatetic teacher. Even this small amount of instruction is worth consideration, but it is easy to see how much more valuable such classes would be if they could take the form of a continuative course of instruction following up the teaching given in an elementary school, as is often the case in towns. It is becoming more and more noticeable that the girls in village day schools have far fewer chances of obtaining technical teaching than their sisters in town schools.

This is a matter which should be taken into serious consideration by those who are responsible for the education of girls. The difficulties in the way of introducing new work into rural

schools are always great, and a subject such as cookery, which requires special apparatus and space, and even a special training on the part of the teacher, seems on first thoughts to be hedged about with difficulties. But with care and thought, the practical difficulties, such as that of arranging a class-room as a kitchen, might in many cases be overcome, and ways and means provided by local effort for obtaining the necessary appliances for starting cookery teaching. The real obstacle is the difficulty of obtaining a teacher, for it is scarcely likely to be possible in rural districts to obtain a teacher from a school of cookery on account of the expense. The Education Department, recognising this, was willing for some time to approve of cookery teaching by any suitable teacher who could give satisfactory proof of practical knowledge and competency to teach.

Teachers'; licence to teach cookery.

Being, however, very desirous of preventing deterioration in the quality of instruction, the Department in 1893 devised a plan for providing qualified teachers, which is specially applicable to schools in rural districts. The Department now recognises an elementary school teachers' cookery certificate, which any teacher, already qualified to teach under the Education Code, may obtain by going to a recognised school of cookery for 175 hours' instruction. This certificate will only permit the holder to teach cookery under the Education Code in the school where she is ordinarily employed in teaching during the day, or in an evening continuation school. Teachers who have already gone through an apprenticeship as pupil-teachers and possibly a further training in a training college have already become experienced in maintaining discipline and in class teaching. Experience has shown that when well-trained elementary school teachers take up the subject of cookery, they are exceedingly successful in teaching it.

Elementary school teacher's cookery certificate.

This plan seems indeed to offer the widest possibilities for introducing cookery into the elementary schools throughout our rural districts.

Some of the training colleges for schoolmistresses have, from time to time, given courses of instruction in cookery to the students. These have proved useful as emphasising the theoretical teaching of domestic economy, and may in some instances have been the means of cookery teaching being commenced by the students after they had become mistresses of schools.

It must, however, be borne in mind that such teaching cannot possibly be given in day schools where the mistress works single-handed, or is perhaps only assisted by a young pupil-teacher or monitress. There would need to be at least two adult teachers on the staff if cookery is to be included in the curriculum; as the teacher who is giving a lesson in cookery must be quite free to devote her entire attention to the cookery class. This would be more easily arranged in mixed schools under a master who is assisted by a mistress and one or two pupil-teachers or monitors.

Where instruction in cookery and other domestic subjects can be taught intelligently by a member of the school staff, whether it be in rural or urban schools, there is likely to be far more interest taken in this technical part of the work by the school teachers as a body. It has been felt that instruction in cookery and other domestic subjects has often been considered by elementary school teachers as a matter quite outside the educational work of the school. This is doubtless owing to the fact that girls in urban schools are either taught by an outside teacher at a "centre" at some distance from their day school, or by a teacher who in no way comes into touch with the general education given in the schools.

From special inquiries made of several teachers who have, as members of the ordinary staff of their schools, taught cookery, or laundry work, or both, either as part of the ordinary school routine, or simply in courses of lessons in accordance with the regulations of the Code necessary for earning the Government grant, conclusive proof has been obtained of the great value of the incorporation of the teaching of these domestic subjects in the general education of the girls. The teacher is able to bring one lesson to bear upon another, and innumerable opportunities arise for making the girls understand and feel that their domestic lessons are part and parcel of their ordinary school work, without which their education would not be complete. Among those schools of whom inquiry was made may be mentioned one large voluntary school, in which weekly cookery lessons have been given to the elder girls for the past 18 years by members of the ordinary staff of the school.

In one large rural school under a master, the assistant mistress, who takes charge of the upper standards, teaches both cookery and laundry work to the girls, and the Government grant was earned for both subjects last year. In another similar school the assistant mistress teaches cookery to the elder girls on one half day weekly throughout the year. The last-mentioned teacher states that she fixed Friday afternoon for the cookery lessons with a view to inducing girls to attend more regularly, as on Fridays the attendance at this school was not good. She asserts that a great improvement resulted, and that the girls are now most unwilling to be absent from the cookery lessons. Cookery has been regularly taught in this village school for about six years.

But these are isolated instances. If such a system of incorporating housewifery subjects with the education of the girls could be general, the results would be far more wide-reaching and valuable than perhaps any other part of the education of girls in elementary schools is ever likely to prove.

Her Majesty's Inspectress of Cookery.

The Education Department has for several years been assisted by an Inspectress of Cookery, whose special work is—

(*a.*) To advise Her Majesty's Inspectors of Schools in matters of difficulty which may arise locally in reference to the qualifications of teachers of cookery; and

(*b.*) To inspect and report to the Education Department upon training schools of cookery and their equipment, and the efficiency or otherwise of the training provided in them for students who desire to become teachers of cookery in schools under the Education Department.

Laundry Work in Elementary Schools.

The Education Department first admitted laundry work as a subject of instruction in elementary schools in the Code of 1889–90.

Value of instruction in laundry work

Next to cookery and needlework, no more useful subject connected with housewifery could have been introduced into the elementary schools. Washing day in the working man's home is but too frequently another name for real discomfort. The object of teaching laundry work is not only to teach the girls how to wash and dry the clothes, and to starch and iron them in the best way and with the least possible deterioration of the fabrics, but to train them to habits of neatness, quickness, and cleanliness, so that, by the exercise of a little forethought, methodical arrangement, and good management, washing day in the home need not upset the whole household, as is so often the case.

Object of teaching laundry work.

The Education Department, in their desire to make laundry work of really practical value to school girls, instructs Her Majesty's Inspectors—

Instructions to Her Majesty's Inspectors.

(*a.*) To report specially to the Department upon the provision available for the purpose in those schools which desire to include laundry work in their curriculum.

(*b.*) To ascertain whether the appliances and methods are those which are possible in the homes of working people.

(*c.*) To ascertain that the teacher has practical as well as theoretical knowledge of what she teaches, and to see finished specimens of the teachers' and the children's work.

Previous experiment under a joint committee.

Previous to the subject being included in the Code, some instruction in laundry work had been given in London as an experiment under a Joint Committee of the School Board for London, the City and Guilds of London Technical Institute, and the Worshipful Company of Drapers, the funds being supplied by the Institute and the Company. After the issue of the Code for 1889–90 the London School Board purchased the plant connected with the four centres which had already commenced work, and took steps to extend the instruction.

Progress of laundry work.

That the introduction of laundry work into the Code has been appreciated, and that the teaching of it is rapidly becoming popular may be gathered from the largely increased number of elementary schools which have included it in their time-tables during the last five years.

In 1891–2 there were	632	girls from	27	schools.
„ 1892–3 „	2,766	„	141	„
„ 1893–4 „	5,640	„	206	„
„ 1894–5 „	7,238	„	260	„
„ 1895–6 „	11,720	„	400	„

These numbers represent the girls for whom the Education Department paid a grant.

Government grant for laundry work.

A grant of 2*s.* is paid by the Education Department for each girl in an elementary school who attends a course of laundry lessons under the regulations of the Code. The course generally consists of 10 lessons of two hours each, and each girl must be present for at least 20 hours in order to be qualified for earning the Government grant for the school. The lessons are, on the whole, very much appreciated by parents, and girls readily learn to take pleasure in washing and ironing.

Teachers of laundry work are trained in training schools similar to training schools of cookery, many of the latter being joint training schools of both subjects. There are now 21 such schools recognised by the Education Department; 19 of these are named on pages 162 and 163. The others are the training school of the Kilburn Orphanage of Mercy and the joint training classes of the London School Board and the City and Guilds' Institute.

The minimum period of training at present required by the Education Department for a laundry diploma is 20 hours a week for three months.

Period of training for laundry diploma.

The arrangements for training are subject to the inspection of Her Majesty's Inspectress, and must receive the approval of the Education Department.

Needlework in Elementary Schools.

Needlework in elementary schools.

Needlework and knitting are taught in elementary schools according to a progressive system arranged by the Education Department. A schedule of work is planned out, naming the stitches and the garment or other work which the girls may reasonably be expected to accomplish during a year's instruction.

Cutting out.

Cutting-out, both in paper and material, forms a very important part of the needlework training, and it is at the present time being systematically and carefully taught. All the garments made in the schools are, as a rule, required to be cut out by the girls. The method adopted is that of a simple system of measurement on paper. The elder girls in most schools cut out for the younger ones, and the garments made are required to be of plain simple patterns, showing intelligence and good workmanship, but without elaborate detail. Girls are taught to use the material to the best advantage in cutting-out, and many teachers endeavour to make this part of the work of real value to the girls after they leave school and are without the guidance and assistance of a teacher.

Test exercises. The work done by the girls during the year is examined by Her Majesty's Inspector of Schools, and the girls are required to cut out patterns in his presence and to work test exercises in the various stitches learned during the year.

Character of the work. The temptation on the part of teachers to show very fine or ornamental needlework is not so great as formerly. Special instructions are given to avoid the materials being too fine in texture. The garments shown to Her Majesty's Inspectors are not allowed to be so fine in texture, or the work to be of such a character, as to strain the eyesight of the children, and the preparation of work of too fine a character is considered a defect rather than an excellency.

Mending as a part of needlework training. Mending is a part of needlework training which would be exceedingly valuable in elementary schools from both an economic and a moral point of view. In some schools mending is taught, and efforts are made to connect this part of school work with the domestic life of the girls by allowing them to bring from home garments which require to be repaired. But this system cannot be said to be at all general, and the teaching of mending is largely confined to the practice of small specimen patches and darns prescribed in the Code syllabus of needlework.

When inquiring upon this subject, schoolmistresses have sometimes stated that it would not be possible to allow girls to bring garments from their homes owing to dirt or possible infection. Doubtless these objections have very real foundation in very poor or overcrowded districts, but there are a great many cases, especially of small schools, where the teachers have sufficient knowledge of the home circumstances of the girls to admit of sufficient care being exercised in selecting girls to bring garments to the school.

It should also be noted that poor people are often very unwilling to send their clothes to the schools for their children to mend.

But in spite of these difficulties and objections the fact remains that mending should form an integral part of the needlework training of the girls who, in a very few years after leaving school, form the mass of the working women of the country.

Where possible, and it is often quite possible, more especially in rural schools, girls should be allowed and encouraged to bring garments from home to mend. The darned socks or stockings or vest, the patched flannel petticoat, or the mended print frock or pinafore, in mending which the girl has been taught to accurately match the pattern of the print, will do far more to make the girls useful needlewomen in their homes in after-life and to convince parents of the practical utility of school needlework than the spending of so many hours over practising tiny specimen patches and darns, which, although very neat and pretty as specimens, are not of very great practical use in the homes of artisans.

The Education Department specially encourages and approves of such efforts to make the school instruction in needlework of practical use in the economy of the home.

Time spent in teaching needlework.

When needlework is systematically taught on good methods from the infant class upwards, it is generally found that from three to four hours weekly suffice for fulfilling the requirements of the needlework schedule. Although a definite syllabus of work is laid down by the Education Department, managers of schools are permitted to submit to the Department alternative schemes of needlework suited to the special needs of a district.

The whole subject is taught by the members of the ordinary staff of the school.

Training of teachers in needlework.

Pupil-teachers during their apprenticeship are taught needlework, cutting-out, &c. as part of their training. Students in training colleges are also trained to teach needlework. The work of pupil-teachers, acting teachers who are candidates in the certificate examination, and students in training colleges for schoolmistresses is examined by Her Majesty's Inspectress of Needlework. Part of the needlework examination in training colleges consists of demonstration lessons previously prepared by the students and given to a class of school children in the presence of Her Majesty's Inspectress of Needlework. These lessons are not considered satisfactory unless they are well prepared and carefully given, with plenty of blackboard sketches and illustrations sufficiently clear to enable the children to intelligently follow the teaching.

The needlework course as now given in training colleges is of an eminently useful character.

Practical Housewifery.

Housewifery.

Housewifery has recently been recognised by the Education Department, and it is included in the Code for 1897–98 as a subject of instruction for girls.

Scope of the subject.

It is a wide subject, and it requires, in order that it may be efficiently taught, that the teacher shall possess a thorough knowledge of the practical work of a house and the management of it in all its details. Some knowledge of home nursing, as well as of elementary hygiene and physiology, are also essential.

Housewifery to be taught in conjunction with cookery and laundry work.

Housewifery is not permitted to be taken as a school subject unless practical teaching in cookery and laundry work is also included in the school curriculum. A practice class of housewifery may not consist of more than 14 girls. The instruction should include the usual school syllabus of domestic economy, in addition to the practical lessons in house management.

Object of instruction in housewifery.

The Education Department specially points out that it is not intended to allow these classes to resolve themselves into places for training girls for domestic service. Housewifery in the elementary schools is intended to be a course of instruction to

fit the girls on leaving school for the various household duties which devolve more or less upon all women.

Theoretical Instruction in the Domestic Sciences.

Domestic economy.

1. *Domestic Economy.*—This subject, as has already been stated, consists of lessons in theoretical domestic economy. The instruction is divided into three stages according to the capacity of the girls, and, when taken in conjunction with practical lessons in cookery and laundry work, it forms a very valuable addition to their training. But even in schools where no means exist for giving practical instruction in cookery and laundry work, the theoretical lessons in domestic economy are distinctly useful in drawing the attention of the girls to the importance of the subject, and in showing them how necessary some knowledge of it is to the maintenance of healthfulness and comfort in the home. Many teachers succeed in making their teaching of domestic economy practical by experiments and illustrations, and this has largely increased the popularity of the subject among girls.

Value of theoretical instruction.

Domestic science.

2. *Domestic Science.*—This is a new subject introduced into the Education Code of 1897–98. It consists of the science of domestic economy and hygiene treated experimentally. The experiments are to be carried out as far as possible by the scholars themselves, each experiment being arranged with the object of solving a definite problem. The lessons will deal with the science underlying many of the rules and operations of the household, and will aim at presenting the facts connected with the subject of domestic economy upon a reasonable basis, thus training the scholars to observe critically, to think accurately, and to form correct judgments.

Domestic economy in elementary day schools under the London School Board.

In such a report as this it would be impossible to make individual reference to the excellent work which is being done under nearly all the larger and many of the smaller school boards throughout the country, as well as in many voluntary schools, urban and rural, in the direction of forwarding schemes for the training of girls in one or more of the domestic sciences, both practically and theoretically.

The London School Board, however, as the largest and most representative body in the kingdom dealing with elementary education, may perhaps receive special mention.

Cookery centres under the London School Board.

The Board has established 151 centres, each conveniently placed to accommodate girls from several schools in various parts of the metropolitan area, who are instructed in both the theory and practice of cookery.

These centres consist of a stepped class-room about 21 feet by 18 feet, containing a demonstration counter, a gas stove, a kitchener, an open range stove, a dresser, scullery accommodation, and such simple utensils, &c. as are necessary for the teaching of plain cookery.

Accommodation.

The accommodation for teaching cookery is not yet equal to the number of girls who are eligible for instruction, for the Board's regulations require that all girls over 11 years of age without regard to standard, and all suitable girls in Standard IV. and upwards who are 10 years of age, shall be required in each year to attend 20 lessons in cookery at one of the cookery centres, or 11 lessons in laundry work at one of the laundry centres.

Number of girls under cookery instruction in London Board day schools.

Under this regulation about 65,000 girls are eligible in the London Board schools to receive instruction, a far greater number than can as yet be accommodated, but as new centres are opened from time to time the number unprovided for will gradually decrease.

The following comparative figures, giving the number of girls who have annually completed a course of instruction, show the progress that has been made under the London School Board during the six years ended March 31st, 1896 :—

1891	-	17,527 girls
1892	-	20,243 „
1893	-	22,025 „
1894	-	24,699 „
1895	-	28,809 „
1896	-	31,879 „

Laundry instruction under London School Board.

Laundry work, as already stated, was taught in elementary schools under the London School Board previous to its recognition in the Code by the Education Department as a grant-earning subject.

It is organised on the same system as the instruction in cookery. At present there are 83 centres for instruction. The following figures show the number of girls who completed a course of instruction in laundry work during the six years ended March 31st, 1896, and demonstrate the great progress which this subject has made under the London School Board :—

1891	-	30 girls
1892	-	678 „
1893	-	3,120 „
1894	-	5,898 „
1895	-	8,794 „
1896	-	12,262 „

These figures, of course, include some of the large number of girls who attended the classes under the regulation of the Board which rendered them eligible for instruction by age, though possibly not eligible by standard for a grant to be paid by the Education Department.

Deaf-mute girls.

Some of the most suitable of the deaf-mute girls for the education of whom the school board is responsible are selected for instruction in cookery and laundry work.

The introduction of these subjects into the curriculum for these afflicted girls has proved very successful. The intelligence

of the girls has been awakened and their interest excited, whilst kindly feeling, sympathy, and consideration have been shown to these poor girls by their unafflicted companions. Other school boards now make provision for teaching some of the domestic subjects to deaf and dumb girls.

Housewifery under the London School Board.

Housewifery is at the present moment taught in only one centre under the London School Board. It is a special experiment proceeding upon no rigid syllabus, and at the end of 12 months' experience a report will be made to the Board, and probably a syllabus drawn up for general practice. It is in contemplation to open two other centres for housewifery within the next few months.

II.—Domestic Economy under the Technical Instruction Acts.

When the technical education movement in this country received its first great national impetus by the Technical Instruction Act of 1889, and, under the Local Taxation Act of 1890, large sums of money, available in 1891 for educational purposes, were handed over to county councils, it was generally conceded that part of these funds should be devoted to the provision of facilities for instructing women and girls in the various branches of domestic economy.

Girls attending those elementary schools where there are cookery and laundry centres obtain some definite training in these subjects; all are taught plain needlework and cutting-out, and many receive some theoretical instruction in domestic economy, elementary hygiene and physiology. But for the young women who had left school for several years, and for the mothers of families, few of whom had received the benefit of this school training, there was no existing means by which they might increase their limited store of knowledge, and where they might learn to make the best of everything which comes within their reach.

Peripatetic teaching under technical education committees.

Arrangements were, therefore, made by technical education committees under most of the county councils for peripatetic teaching in such domestic subjects as cookery, laundry work, household sewing, including dress-cutting and dressmaking, and the laws of health, including home-nursing. These subjects as taught were not intended for professional purposes. The great aim throughout has been to awaken intelligence, to make women think, to teach them to avoid errors in the administration of their homes, and to give some knowledge of the science of home life—knowledge, which when acquired and applied, not only enhances the comfort and happiness of the family, but, considered from a national point of view, must produce extremely important economic results in regard to the health, physique, and increased intelligence of the rising generation.

Aim of the instruction.

This teaching, which was and is still very widely given, has been extremely popular in many parts of the country. It has

awakened much interest, and in addition to its having proved of actual practical value in the home life of our villages and towns, it has served as a means of accentuating a desire for more systematic training in domestic subjects for girls.

Schools of domestic economy.

Largely as an outcome of these classes there are at the present time several well-organised schools of domestic economy in different parts of the country. These are in many instances generously assisted by grants from county technical education funds, and the girls trained in them hold scholarships entitling them to free instruction and other privileges.

Admission to the schools.

As a rule girls are admitted to the schools on the recommendation of local committees. No special entrance examination is arranged, but regard is paid to special aptitude for domestic subjects, and girls who have attended any of the county council cookery, laundry, or needlework classes are considered specially eligible. The period of training is from three to five or six months. In some instances the training schools for girls are established in connexion with a school of cookery for training teachers of domestic subjects, in which case the county council scholarship girls and the student teachers in training are under one lady superintendent, with a matron to take charge of the general housework training of the girls, the lessons in cookery, laundry work, and needlework being given by the staff teachers of the school.

Some of the schools are residential, others are for day scholars. Good instances of these residential schools are those in Wiltshire, Norfolk, Sussex, and Northampton, and there are several others in different parts of the country.

Temporary schools of domestic economy.

In the East Riding of Yorkshire the following plan for giving some training in domestic economy has been carried on for over a year with very fair results. The technical education committee takes two small houses for three months at a time in towns or villages within easy distance of each other by road or rail. Each house is simply furnished as an artisan's home. Day classes, consisting of six girls' at a time, are taught in these two small schools of domestic economy. The same teacher takes charge of both schools, each being open for three days weekly.

The girls cook the food which they bring from their own homes, and they wash, starch, and iron clothes from their own homes. They are instructed in house work generally, and they learn to like the work. The hours of attendance are about the same as at the elementary school. The girls attend twice daily, and no meals are given at the school. These classes are a capital illustration of the amount of work which can be accomplished by attendance at a day domestic economy school for three days weekly by girls coming from artisans' homes. There is some trouble and additional expense attached to moving the furniture from place to place at the end of every three months, and it is often difficult to get suitable houses, but the system

has the advantage of arousing local interest in various parts of the riding.

The Kent County Council Technical Education Committee has commenced granting scholarships tenable at the National Training School to nine girls for cookery and nine girls for dressmaking. Each scholarship is worth 10 guineas, together with free tuition, board, and lodging. Dressmaking pupils are provided with material for one dress.

Domestic economy under the Technical Education Board.

The London Technical Education Board, in addition to an extensive system of classes in domestic subjects of special use to mothers of families and to young women of the industrial classes, has organised an excellent system of day continuation schools of domestic economy for girls on leaving the elementary day schools.

Battersea Polytechnic School of Domestic Economy.

The first day training school of domestic economy under the London Technical Education Board was opened at the Battersea Polytechnic Institute in February 1894, where there was already all the accommodation necessary for the experiment.

The object of the London Technical Education Board was to enable girls who had passed through the public elementary schools to obtain a course of training in domestic subjects which would help to fit them for employment in domestic work, or as needlewomen or laundry workers, or as "mother's helps" in their own homes. The Battersea School of Domestic Economy commenced with 24 girls, 19 of whom were scholars nominated by the Technical Education Board. So successful were the first experiments of the board in this direction that eight of these schools have now been opened in the metropolitan area, held at the following institutes:—

Battersea Polytechnic Institute, S.W.
Borough Polytechnic Institute, S.E.
South West London Polytechnic Institute, Chelsea.
Woolwich Polytechnic Institute.
Northampton Institute, Clerkenwell, E.C.
Norwood Technical Institute, Knight's Hill, S.E.
Wandsworth Technical Institute.
St. Mark's School of Domestic Economy, St. John's Wood, N.W.

The schools are subject to the inspection of the Board's lady organiser of domestic economy.

London technical education. Domestic economy scholarships.

The Technical Education Board now offers no less than 225 domestic economy scholarships half-yearly, making 450 annually. The scholarships are tenable for five months, during which time the holders receive free tuition, two free meals daily, and the materials which they require for making dresses or other garments during their training. The classes are held five days weekly.

Scope of the training.

At all the schools systematic training in cookery, laundry work, dress-cutting and dressmaking, plain needlework, patching and darning, and housewifery, with some instruction in the laws of health, are given. Housekeeping and cookery are treated

as part of the everyday life of the girls and not merely as school lessons. The girls cook the meals which they are to eat, they learn to measure and fit themselves for the dresses which they are taught to make, and they are instructed in laundry work in such a way that they can quite well apply their knowledge to the "family wash" in their own homes. The cookery syllabus includes dishes which are well within the reach of the working man earning an average wage; the using up of odds and ends, bones, crusts, cold vegetables, scraps of meat, &c., receives attention, and the utensils and stoves provided for the girls are similar to those found in the majority of artisans' homes.

Cookery.

The laundry work is taught on simple and common-sense principles, the only extra aid to speed and efficiency being a wringer and mangle, and, as these are now so frequently found in the homes of the more thrifty housewives, it is well that the girls should be taught to use them properly. The processes of steeping, washing, boiling, rinsing, blueing, wringing, drying, folding, mangling, are all thoroughly taught. The washing of flannels and woollens, a part of laundry work which is frequently very badly done by laundry women, receives special attention, and starching and ironing are exceedingly well done by the girls at the conclusion of their course of training.

Laundry work.

The girls are taught the market values of foods. In some of the schools special arrangements are made for this. At Battersea they are taken out to purchase meat, greengrocery, &c. When the girls cannot be taken out to market they are sometimes allowed to purchase from the teacher in charge of the stores. They are taught to compare prices, to judge of the freshness and quality of commodities, to expend a given sum to the best advantage in the cheapest market, and how to prepare and cook their meals in the shortest time possible.

Marketing.

These scholarships are eagerly sought for in all districts as soon as the object of the schools gets to be understood by the class whom they are specially intended to benefit.

Demand for domestic economy scholarships.

Most of the schools have one-third of the places open to paying scholars, but there is some difficulty in filling these places, except in the case of the Borough school, which is an afternoon one only. The fee there is fixed at 3*d.* per week. The usual fee for paying scholars at the full-time schools is 1*s.* per week. Occasionally scholarship girls stay for a second course of work at their own expense.

Paying scholars.

It should be distinctly understood that the training is not given with the primary object of preparing girls for domestic service, but with the view of helping them to become better housewives in the future, and more intelligent members of society generally. About one-third of the girls go into domestic service, not a few go into shops and offices, and a large number stay at home to help their parents. Continuation scholarships have been given to some of the most promising girls. These are held at the National Training School of Cookery. Apprenticeships

Object of the training.

Continuation scholarships.

in dressmaking have also been given in connexion with these domestic economy schools owing to the generous co-operation of the Merchant Taylors' and the Clothworkers' Companies.

III.—Domestic Economy in Evening Continuation Schools under the Education Department and under County Council Technical Education Committees.

One of the conclusions quickly arrived at by those who have had charge of the organisation and arrangement of county council technical education classes throughout the country, both in town centres and in rural districts, was that it is impossible to expend the funds allotted to technical education to the best advantage in those districts where the standard of general education is low. In many cases boys and girls leave the elementary schools at the minimum age or standard, and are thus often unprepared intellectually to benefit by instruction of a higher order.

Graduated instruction in evening schools.

The Education Department, by the Evening Continuation Schools Code of 1893, made arrangements by which the education given in day schools may be followed up by graduated schemes of instruction in a variety of subjects.

Domestic economy in evening continuation schools.

In the Evening Continuation Schools Code are included for women and girls domestic economy, cookery, laundry work, housewifery needlework and dairy work, sick-nursing and hygiene. In conjunction with plain needlework home dressmaking is now also recognised, and lessons in millinery may be included in the course of instruction.

With the exception of housewifery, the Education Department gives a special grant calculated upon the attendance of the pupils, provided that Her Majesty's Inspectors are satisfied that the teaching given in any of the above subjects is thoroughly efficient. Housewifery is included in the ordinary subjects of instruction recognised for the payment of a fixed grant.

In many counties evening continuation schools are carried on in conjunction with the Education Department and the County Technical Education Committee.

Limitation of application of technical education funds.

It should be mentioned that, by the terms of the Technical Instruction Act, the funds at the disposal of Technical Education Commitees are not available for supplying, or aiding the supply, of technical instruction to scholars receiving instruction at an elementary school in the obligatory or standard subjects prescribed by the Minutes of the Education Department for the time being in force.

Statistics relating to domestic subjects in evening schools.

Cookery.

During the evening schools session ended 31st August 1896, cookery was taught in 531 evening continuation schools, 524 of which were qualified to earn a grant from the Education Department. The number of girls and women who attended was 12,551, and the amount of grant paid by the Education Department in respect of this subject was 1,479*l*.

Laundry work was taught in 47 evening schools, 45 of which were qualified to earn a grant upon 568 pupils. The amount of grant earned was 56*l.* 16*s.* **Laundry work.**

Domestic economy, taken theoretically, was taught in 552 evening schools to 15,099 women and girls, and the amount of grant earned was 1,403*l.* 17*s.*

Needlework was an extremely popular subject. The course of work as set forth in the Evening Continuation Schools Code includes the cutting out and making of ordinary garments in calico and flannel, knitting, mending, and simple home dress-cutting and dressmaking. It has already been stated that the dressmaking part of the course must be taken in conjunction with the plain needlework. **Needlework.**

Needlework was taught in 1,212 evening schools during the last session; 34,410 pupils qualified for the Government grant, the amount of which was 5,587*l.* 7*s.*

Dairy work, which enters specially into the domestic economy of farm life, although included in both Day and Evening Schools Codes as a recognised subject for instruction in elementary and in evening continuation schools, has not, up to the present, received much attention in them. Elementary school teachers generally consider school girls too young for dairy work, and there are a good many difficulties in connexion with teaching it. Much space, plenty of water, rather expensive apparatus, and a good supply of cream are required, whilst a dairy teacher sufficiently capable of making the lessons educationally as well as technically valuable would not be available in many places. Dairy work was only taught in one evening continuation school during the last session. **Dairy work under the Elementary Education Act.**

Dairy work is, however, very efficiently taught in all the agricultural counties under the County Technical Education Committees. The plan adopted is usually that of an itinerating school, at which are provided courses of instruction in butter-making and soft cheese-making. The number of pupils in each class is about 12 for one teacher, and the course generally includes daily instruction for a fortnight. **Dairy work under the Technical Instruction Act.**

Competitions are often held at the conclusion of the courses, and one of the interesting features often seen at local agricultural shows is a butter-making competition by county council dairy pupils. **Dairy competitions.**

The prizes won in these competitions sometimes take the form of scholarships, which are tenable at one of the excellent dairy schools or institutes, several of which exist in different parts of the country. Lessons on dairy bacteriology are often given during the course of dairy instruction. **Dairy scholarships.**

Short courses of lectures on poultry keeping are also provided by Technical Education Committees. Labouring men and their wives in rural districts, by a little knowledge of the management of poultry, are often enabled to add considerably to their home comfort. **Poultry keeping.**

Poultry scholarships.

Scholarships are sometimes given to suitable candidates for courses of instruction in poultry-rearing and keeping provided at dairy institutes.

Domestic economy in the evening continuation schools under the London School Board.

Under the London School Board's Evening Continuation Schools Scheme, both the cookery and the needlework classes are in great request amongst girls and young women. As an illustration of the popularity of these subjects, it may be stated that, during the three months October to Christmas 1896, the latest period for which returns are available, there were 140 cookery classes held in the Board's evening schools, attended by considerably over 2,000 pupils, whilst dressmaking, &c., which was taught in 112 evening schools, was very popular. Twenty-six laundry classes were held, attended by nearly 300 pupils.

In Manchester, Birmingham, Nottingham, Sheffield, Leeds, and other large centres, evening continuation classes in the domestic sciences for women and girls are making steady progress. It will be readily understood that evening schools in urban districts would always be better attended than in rural districts. Although many rural evening schools are doing good work, both in connexion with the Education Department and the County Technical Education Committee, the dark nights in winter and the lonely roads will partly account for the apparent difficulty in some rural districts of making the evening schools movement largely successful among girls and young women.

Domestic economy for county council scholarship candidates.

In addition to the direct encouragement given by the Technical Education Committees to the teaching of domestic economy to classes of women and girls and in evening continuation schools, they also sometimes, although unable by the terms of the Technical Instruction Act to assist elementary education, indirectly encourage the teaching of it in elementary schools. This is done by including the theory of domestic economy as one of the optional subjects in the examinations for junior county scholarships, which are mostly open to boys and girls from elementary schools. This is also included in many syllabuses for intermediate and for some senior scholarship examinations. In the examinations for minor county council scholarships held by the Joint Scholarships Board in 1896, which included the candidates for the London Technical Education Minor Scholarships, about 600 candidates took the papers in domestic economy. The London Technical Education Board have decided to add practical cookery this year to their theoretical examination in domestic economy for intermediate scholarships.

Joint scholarships board.

IV.—Influence of Various Examining Bodies upon the Study of Domestic Economy and Kindred Sciences.

Several examining bodies which include domestic economy hygiene, physiology, &c. among the list of subjects which they undertake to examine act as influences outside the schools in

which direct teaching is given to encourage a general interest in them.

Hygiene and physiology under the Science and Art Department.

Classes in hygiene and physiology are largely held throughout the country under the regulations of the Science and Art Department. These are sometimes held in connexion with technical schools or institutes, or schools of science and art, county council technical education committees, higher standard, higher grade, and organised science schools.

Results of examinations in hygiene and physiology.

The latest returns of entries and successes of candidates for both the hygiene and physiology examinations of the Science and Art Department show that a very large amount of teaching is given in preparation for these examinations. As considerably more pupils sometimes attend classes than enter for the examinations, the following figures may by no means represent the actual number who benefited by the teaching.

In hygiene a total number of 8,741 candidates entered in the advanced and elementary stages in 1896, 6,864 of whom succeeded in passing the examination. In human physiology 7,221 candidates entered for the examination, of whom 4,984 passed.

The Society of Arts. Domestic economy.

The Society of Arts holds an annual examination in domestic economy, for which certificates are granted. The class of candidates who enter for this examination is very varied. There is a small proportion of school girls, some of whom are from secondary schools, a good many enter from schools of cookery, and a fair proportion enter themselves as teachers in schools. Others enter for the examination with a view of becoming teachers in the future. In the year 1896 there were 236 candidates for this examination, of whom 223 succeeded in obtaining a place in one of the three classes into which the successful candidates were divided.

The City and Guilds of London Institute. Needlework, dressmaking, and millinery.

The City and Guilds of London Institute encourages the teaching of dressmaking, plain needlework, and millinery by including them in their list of technological subjects for which they hold annual examinations. Dressmaking has been examined for some years. Millinery and plain needlework were added to the list in 1896.

No details of the two last-named subjects can be given, as the first examination in them is only being held this term, but the number of centres sending up candidates is large.

Results gained in the dressmaking examinations of City and Guilds of London Institute.

The large numbers who enter for the examinations in dressmaking point to the fact that this subject is being very widely taught on some definite scientific basis.

In 1894, 982 candidates entered and 532 passed, and the returns show that the numbers who entered represent less than one-fourth of those who attended the classes.

In 1895, 897 candidates entered and 648 passed.

In 1896 there were 1,068 candidates from 240 registered classes; 738 passed, and 109 raised their certificates to a higher

grade than they had gained in a previous examination. The number of pupils registered in the 240 classes was 5,514.

The City and Guilds of London Institute has made arrangements to include plain cookery in its list of technological subjects for the session 1897–98. The course will consist of 36 hours' instruction, and a theoretical and practical examination will be held on similar lines to the other examinations held by the Institute, and certificates will be granted to successful candidates. The Institute has also recently undertaken the inspection of domestic economy schools and classes.

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stitutes.

The Lancashire and Cheshire Union of Institutes has for many years encouraged the teaching of the domestic sciences in the various schools and institutions affiliated with the Union. Year by year the numbers which enter for the examinations increase. In 1895 the entries were 5,329; in 1896 they increased to 6,055.

The entries for the various subjects were:—

Domestic economy - - -	361
Sick nursing - - -	215
Cookery - - - -	1,282
Laundry work - - -	415
Needlework - - - -	470
Dressmaking - - -	3,312

The large number entering for dressmaking in these examinations is worthy of remark.

The fact that arrangements are year by year made by so many examining boards for examinations in these allied domestic subjects must point to a very large amount of provision being made throughout the country for the teaching of them. The candidates are largely drawn from the better class of girls who leave the elementary schools, young women engaged in shops and industrial occupations, pupil-teachers, and the younger assistant mistresses in elementary schools.

Domestic
economy in
raining
olleges under
he Education
Department.

Domestic economy is included in the examination syllabus for Queen's Scholarships as a compulsory subject, and in the syllabus for the first and second year certificate examinations as an optional subject. Students in residential training colleges under Government inspection are generally expected to take some part in the practical household work. The science of hygiene is also included in the syllabus for training colleges.

V.—Domestic Economy in High Schools, Secondary Schools, &c.

The actual amount of direct teaching of the domestic sciences in high schools is comparatively small at present. An examination of the curriculum of a very large number of girls' schools, however, shows that there is a decided tendency just now towards including in school prospetuses some technical subject

bearing upon health and home life and management. Such a tendency cannot but be regarded with very much satisfaction.

To whatever grade of society a girl may belong, whatever her special line of life is to be when school days are over, there must be a home-life to be lived, and no woman can afford to be ignorant of the laws which govern personal health, health in the home, and comfort in the home.

Needlework.

Perhaps the domestic subject which more especially receives attention in high schools for girls is needlework. In many high schools a lesson of one hour weekly is given to all the girls, and during a part or the whole of the year an optional class is held on one afternoon weekly, when girls learn to sew and to cut out and make small garments. Some schools teach dressmaking upon some simple system of measurement.

In some cases special needlework teachers are engaged for these classes, and girls are prepared for a needlework examination held by the London Institute of Plain Needlework. Classes for knitting, mending, and darning are also held. Although the needlework classes are very general, it should be mentioned that in some schools girls who are learning Latin are excused from attending the needlework classes. It is a point worthy of note that some of the optional classes are stated to be "largely attended."

Hygiene.

Hygiene classes are held in some of the high schools, but these are not general. The head mistress of one high school states that "hygiene is given for girls not taking otherwise too "many subjects." Again, a school teaches "hygiene instead of "singing," and another head mistress says, "We give lessons in "hygiene once a week to pupils not learning Latin." The length of the lesson is three-quarters of an hour weekly, and the course taken includes:—

1. Principles of ventilation with diagrams and experiments.
2. Classification of foodstuffs.
3. Varieties of food.
4. Water, sources of supply, impurities, &c.

Several instances of a short course of lessons being provided have come under notice.

One very practical high school teaches hygiene by special courses, provided for the elder pupils during the last three terms of school life. Simple lectures are given with as much practical illustration as possible, and the outline of the syllabus shows that the lessons include—

1. The general structure of the body.
2. Personal hygiene, diet, ventilation.
3. Treatment of diseases and injuries, and simple rules to be observed in sick nursing.

The same school devotes several hours weekly to the study of chemistry, including two hours' practical work in the laboratory.

The head mistress of another high school says: "A year's "course of hygiene is provided for all pupils on reaching a

" certain form, generally the upper fourth," the time devoted to the lessons being 1½ hours weekly.

In another instance, one lesson weekly is given in the lower division of the school on the laws of health, ventilation, &c., and the head mistress of the same school states that " some time ago " some special lectures in hygiene were given in the school by " a visiting lecturer. These seemed to be attractive and to " leave an impression on those who heard them." The same head mistress goes on to say, " I have had some thought of giving " a weekly lecture on elementary physiology, but as things are " at present I have literally not a spare ten minutes." When pupils are being prepared for the Froebel certificate, hygiene is studied, that being one of the subjects for examination.

Chemistry.

Chemistry is taught to the elder girls in most of the high schools when girls are prepared for examinations such as the London Matriculation.

Laboratory work is provided, and the time devoted to the theory and practical work is about three hours weekly.

Elementary physics is taught in some upper forms, and very simple lessons in elementary natural science are given in some lower forms.

Cookery.

Cookery enters only in a very small degree into the time-tables of high schools, and there are at the present time but few such schools which provide accommodation for the teaching of cookery. But kitchens are provided in a few high schools and regular lessons are given by trained teachers of cookery. One important girls' high school in London, which also provides instruction in needlework, chemistry, and hygiene, teaches cookery, demonstration and practice classes being held weekly, whilst in the chemistry classes, the composition of starch, cellulose, glucose, &c. is introduced, thus assisting in making the effects of the application of heat upon foodstuffs more intelligible in the cookery lessons, and aiding the pupils to better understand the physiology of digestion.

Domestic economy.

Domestic economy is taught in one high school to pupils who intend subsequently to enter for the Queen's Scholarship Examination. Another school from time to time provides courses of instruction for the middle forms in household economy, including the constituents of food and the laws of health. The lessons are emphasised at a later period where possible in the chemistry classes.

Private schools.

The head mistresses of many private schools now include some subject connected with practical domestic economy in the list of

Needlework.

subjects taught. In nearly all the best private schools needle-work, sometimes including simple dressmaking, is systematically taught. Fancy work is by no means so commonly found to be almost, if not quite, the only needlework done at school, as was

Knitting, &c.

customary a few years ago. Knitting, introducing some of the fancy stitches for which our great grandmothers were famous a hundred years ago, seems to be coming into fashion, and it may

be interesting to mention here that weaving by a hand loom has been introduced into one proprietary school with very satisfactory results.

Cookery.

Sometimes private schools arrange for courses of cookery lessons to be given to their pupils at a local school of cookery when such a school is within reach. But on the whole the number of private schools which include cookery in their curriculum is comparatively few.

Hygiene and domestic economy.

Neither hygiene nor the theory of domestic economy is generally taught. When, perhaps, a few girls are preparing for some special examination in which papers on these subjects are set, *e.g.*, county council scholarship examinations, these subjects are often in consequence taught to the whole class. Girls from private schools are sometimes prepared for the Science and Art Department's examinations in hygiene and physiology, in which cases the girls either attend some recognised local class, or suitable instruction is provided at the school.

Science and Art Department's examinations.

Physiology and hygiene.

Physiology and hygiene have been included by the University of Cambridge Local Examinations' Syndicate since 1895 in the syllabus for the Junior and Senior Local Examinations. This has caused a considerable number of schools which prepare pupils for these examinations to include these subjects in their curriculum.

In 1895 the number of girls who took physiology and hygiene in the junior examination was 293 from 50 schools. In 1896 the number was 310 from 72 schools.

In 1895 the number of girls taking these subjects in the senior examination was 97 from 47 schools, and in 1896 there were 179 from 62 schools.

It would thus appear that the Cambridge Syndicate has indirectly exercised considerable influence in inducing principals to introduce these subjects into their schools.

Sick nursing and first aid to the injured.

Sick nursing and first aid classes, when organised in a district by St. John's Ambulance Association or some other society, are sometimes attended by the elder girls from neighbouring private schools who go in class in charge of a teacher. As a rule, such arrangements are very popular with the girls, some of whom are not unfrequently eager to enter for the examination usually held at the conclusion of the course. In a few very good schools such courses of lectures are occasionally given on the school premises, the elder girls being allowed to prepare beds, materials for demonstration, &c., for the lectures.

Speaking generally, however, there is a tendency to view the whole of the domestic subjects except needlework as extra subjects outside the ordinary school curriculum, and, except in a very few special cases, and incidentally in others, there is no great effort made to incorporate domestic sciences or arts with the general education of the girls.

Now and again an advertisement may be seen stating that in connexion with some private school arrangements are made for training in domestic economy, cookery, and dressmaking. This

would appear to point to a recognition by principals of girls' schools that there is a specific want, or that parents have asked for such training for their daughters from time to time.

It would be an expensive and a difficult matter to provide proper accommodation and suitable appliances for teaching cookery, &c., in many schools, whether high schools or private schools, and, indeed, in many cases it would be impossible. But there are now so many excellent technical schools and institutes where all the requisite arrangements for teaching the application of the domestic sciences are complete. It would seem quite within the region of possibility for some arrangement to be made by the principals of girls' schools with the local technical school for classes of elder girls to attend at the local technical school for instruction in the housewifery subjects selected.

The objections raised by head mistresses of both high schools and private schools to commencing domestic economy are generally that the time-table is already over full, and that it is impossible to put in another subject without crowding out some important subject. Others consider that domestic economy cannot be incorporated advantageously with the general education. Others again think it is waste of time, whilst some few express themselves willing to admit the subjects into their time-table if it were possible to spare time; *e.g.*, a head mistress writes:—"I should be only too glad to add cookery to our "subjects, but we have no appliances, and hardly enough room "for it." In two or three instances suggestions have been made by head mistresses as to the advisability of affiliating with some technical school or institute for cookery, &c., whilst the head mistress of a high school writes:—"We do not give lessons in "cookery, sick nursing, or housewifery, but we could at any time "introduce such subjects."

Domestic Economy in Day Continuation Schools.

Domestic economy for girls in an organised science school for boys and girls.

At Battersea Polytechnic Institute is an excellent Organised Science School for boys and girls who have either passed through the standards of an elementary school or are able to pass an examination equal to the 6th Standard of the Education Department Code. The girls in this school work side by side with the boys in mathematics, physics, chemistry, practical geometry, history, French, drawing, &c. But whilst the boys receive manual training in woodwork, &c., in the workshops, the girls are instructed in cookery, needlework and dressmaking, laundry work and household management. For these special subjects the girls spend from four to eight hours weekly in the kitchens and workrooms. The arrangements at this school appear to work exceedingly well, and parents are beginning to much value the training in domestic economy which is being incorporated with the general education of their girls. The fee for each pupil is 1*l.* per term, and the school is open 5½ hours daily.

Domestic economy for girls in a day technical school.

The South Wimbledon Technical School for Girls quite recently opened, in connexion with the Surrey County Council Technical Education Committee, has accommodation for 150 day scholars. Here, in addition to ordinary English and commercial subjects, arrangements are made for a thorough education in the home arts. No girl is admitted until she has passed the 6th Standard of the Education Code or an equivalent examination. Admission is between the ages of 12 and 16. The domestic subjects are taught by four specially trained teachers, and include cookery, dress-cutting, millinery, plain needlework, home nursing, domestic economy (theory), and laundry work. The fees charged at this school are 10*s.* per term for Surrey girls, and 1*l.* per term for girls living in other counties.

Domestic economy in girls' Secondary schools in London.

Under the rules of the London Technical Education Board all girls who gain minor scholarships must hold them at some secondary school where teaching in domestic economy is provided.

To further encourage the teaching of domestic science, the Board requires, in order that schools shall be eligible to admit scholarship holders, that opportunities shall be given to *all* the girls in the school to take a domestic science subject. The most popular subjects are cookery and dressmaking. In some of these secondary schools a teacher of cookery is on the staff, in others the lessons are given by a teacher sent by the Technical Education Board. In consequence of the rules of the London Technical Education Board, and the encouragement thus given to domestic subjects, quite a large number of excellent London secondary schools for girls now provide satisfactorily for teaching one or two subjects.

Continuation Domestic Economy Schools.

Continuation domestic economy schools.

The often-expressed opinion of head mistresses of high schools, that the study of the domestic sciences and arts should only be entered upon at the end of school life, has been put to a practical test in the case of the Mary Datchelor Girls' School, Camberwell. Here a continuation domestic economy school has been opened for girls of 17 or thereabouts, who are encouraged to enter this division of the school as continuation pupils in domestic economy. The subjects taught are dressmaking, cookery, hygiene, and first aid to the injured. At the present time there are 24 or 25 girls in the classes, most of them being over 18, none under 17 years of age.

In the ordinary school curriculum as much as possible is done to prepare the way for the domestic economy training which the girls are encouraged to enter upon at the close of their ordinary school career.

In connexion with the Liverpool Technical College for Women a centre was opened in 1896 for training elder girls in general domestic management, the course of work including cookery,

laundry work, household sewing, home dressmaking, millinery, hygiene, and housewifery. Scholarships for girls from elementary schools have been established by the committee of this domestic training centre. The scheme is supported by Mr. Henry Tate, by the City Council, and by friends of the movement for educating girls in the domestic sciences.

In conclusion, the very large amount of domestic science teaching provided under the Education Acts, and the teaching which is given in many schools for higher education, must tend to prove the *possibility* of incorporating the teaching of domestic sciences and their practical application in the everyday lessons of the school. From a national point of view it is highly desirable. There is no part of the education of girls which is so likely to produce a permanent effect as, or to exercise a better influence than, an intelligent study of the domestic sciences, and a deft and ready practical knowledge of the application of the essential principles underlying the making of the home, its economical management, and the maintenance of the health of its inmates.

MARGARET ELEANOR PILLOW.

Technical Education for Girls.

Amongst the many problems with which the friends of technical education have had to deal, that of the best kind of technical training for girls is in reality one of the most difficult, though it appears simple enough.

So far as girls and women take up the same callings as boys and men, the training of the two may be decided on pretty much the same lines. Some modification may here and there be necessary, but, taken as a whole, the problem is practically the same for both sexes.

But when we come to the special employments of women we have new questions to consider, and we must decide to what extent preparation for such employments should be introduced into school life, and how such special subjects can be made to yield their maximum of educational value in a well-ordered curriculum of studies.

The practical value of such subjects as cookery and needlework is universally acknowledged, and their position in our elementary schools is firmly established. But their educational value is very far from being recognised, and the advocates for more thorough education for girls are naturally afraid lest they should usurp the place of subjects more generally accepted for the purposes of sound education.

The scholar and the utilitarian have both good reasons for the faith that is in them, and the result is that these two parts of girls' education, where they are carried on side by side, are often, as it were, merely two parallel lines of development running along together without ever meeting. Sometimes they are even opposing forces, instead of being brought into co-operative action; they are enemies when they should be allies, and they miss their true function as organic parts of a well-ordered whole.

In all modern school education we must begin by a choice of subjects for our curriculum.

The temptation is to make the list a long one; and we must exercise our best judgment in the matter of choice, so that no important part of education is neglected, and yet the time-table is not overloaded.

Two or three principles are generally accepted as guides in this work of selection. First, we must take care that our range of subjects should ensure proper and well-balanced training of all the mental faculties. Educational experts may hold all kinds of theories concerning the analysis of mental faculty and the laws of its development, and these theories will lead to different plans for the daily routine of the school. But in the general

principle that our subjects of instruction are a means to an end, and that end the well-balanced development of the pupil by means of healthy intellectual life, educational experts at least are at one.

The advocate of culture further desires that school should do its part to provide pupils with some interest in things outside the range of mere bread studies, so that the grown-up man or woman may have resources to fall back upon when the burdens of life make themselves felt.

The utilitarian demands that school should turn out its pupils as practical workers, with skill in some direction or another, so that each individual may have a fair chance of finding congenial employment in his life work—making successful use of his powers in supplying some need of the community.

The attempt to satisfy these two demands in one scheme can only be entirely successful when two conditions are fulfilled. First the curriculum must be selected in such a way that the various subjects included are placed in due relation to each other, so that the whole is organically connected, and not allowed to become a mere putting together of unrelated parts.

In the second place, the handicrafts or other so-called practical subjects must be treated as instruments of education, and not solely as training for a special calling. This last condition makes the difference between technical education, properly so called, and technical instruction of a more or less specialised kind.

But there is a further consideration which should guide the choice of subjects for the school curriculum and the methods of teaching adopted. The value of practical training can easily be seen by all. The importance of good mental discipline may be fully appreciated by many. But comparatively few consider how after-school life is to play its part in driving home what school has taught, and in making each day's employment a source of further educational progress.

If the right ordering of a school curriculum can do anything in helping to make of everyday life and work a natural continuation school for ordinary men and women, it is worth the most careful study that can be given to it, and we have to think not only of what new interests can be supplied to the pupils in school, but also of how those pupils can be prepared to seek interests in ordinary life, and find in their everyday employment means of further education.

This is even more necessary for women than for men. The home duties of women call for considerable manual skill, but they are often looked upon as, at the best, mere drudgery; subjects of necessary instruction, no doubt, but not to be ranked in importance with the other subjects of school work.

And yet, unless intelligence guides the workers and enables them to find interest in their occupations and in the life with which they are associated, it is dreary to contemplate the large share of women's time which is spent in needlework and cookery,

and the various other employments, which may be summed up in the term housecraft.

How can such intelligence and interest be best secured? The plan at present adopted is to take care of general education and let housecraft come in as a minor consideration. Another plan would be to start with the home crafts as a necessary part of the curriculum, and then add such subjects of general school work as were necessarily related to these. To such a curriculum should also be added some literary or historical study, or both, so that interests outside the daily round of life should be secured and an important side of educational development provided for. Here, again, the educational value of such study is greatest when it furnishes some natural link with ordinary life, so that the years after school may not only be brightened by varied interests, but they also in their turn may stimulate and strengthen the interests which school has begun.

The most suitable sort of school for the due working out of such a plan is, probably, a higher grade school, and the methods to be adopted are most easily set forth for a school of this kind.

The pupils would have passed Standard VI., and would, probably, range in age from 11 or 12 to 14 or 15.

Miss Collet's Memorandum on the Education of Working Girls, in Vol. V. of the Report of the Royal Commission on Secondary Education, gives some important statistics of the number of girls between the ages of 10 and 15, and between 15 and 20, who are employed in various ways. It is for those who take up definite work (other than that of teaching) at 14 or 15 that the school would be specially suited, and it is here that the need of something of the kind is beginning to be felt, as we may see from the establishment of such domestic economy schools as we find in Liverpool and at Battersea.

The subjects taught in the school would be:—

I.—The Home Crafts.

Needlework.
Cookery.
Laundry Work.
Housewifery.
Ambulance and nursing.

II.—Science and Art Subjects which give the Theoretical Side of the above Practical Subjects.

(*a.*) Chemistry.
Physics.
Hygiene and physiology.
(*b.*) Drawing and modelling.

III.—Subjects of General Education.

(*a.*) English (grammar, composition, literature).
History.
Geography.
(*b.*) Mathematics (arithmetic, algebra (?), geometry (?)).
(*c.*) Singing.
Drill.

It will be seen that the above list includes nearly all the subjects recognised in the course for women students in an Organised Science School, and that the chief omission is French.

But the distribution of time would be very different from that which is usually adopted in such a school, and the method of dealing with the various subjects would be a further development of some admirable attempts which have already been made to bring school education into more intimate relation with the actual life of the community.

Detailed time-tables are somewhat apt to mislead, as they must of necessity require alteration, with regard both to hours and subjects, to meet the special needs of different schools in different localities. The special difficulties of school accommodation and adequacy of the school staff are other modifying considerations.

But the following plan for a three years' course brings out in tabular form the main idea underlying the distribution of the time and energy of the pupils. (*See opposite.*)

It will be seen that two hours in the afternoon of each day are given up to the practical subjects. The first year's course is the same for all, but in the second and third years provision is made for some specialisation of study. The aim of such a course is to give to the pupils some practical knowledge of all the home crafts, with special knowledge of needlework or of cookery.

The pupils who enter the school have already had some teaching in these two subjects, but the attempt would now be made to systematise the knowledge already possessed, and to work on on lines of the further development of these subjects.

The needlework would include plain sewing, dress-making, millinery, embroidery. In connexion with the dressmaking special teaching would be given on the subject of beauty in dress, and also on the history of costume. In connexion with the embroidery work, an attempt would be made to apply the lessons on ornament and design given in the drawing classes. In this way the handicraft would be closely related to the art training both on its æsthetic and on its historical side.

The cookery work would be classified throughout the course, and the scientific side would not only be made prominent, but the cookery teacher and the science teacher would co-operate so that laboratory and kitchen work were brought into close relation with each other, and the teaching of the two made as much as possible interdependent.

—	—	Monday.	Tuesday.	Wednesday.	Thursday.	Friday.
The same for all the three years.	9-10	Mathematics	History	Geography	Mathematics	Mathematics.
	10-10.45	Geography	English	English	History	English.
	10.45-11	Recess, including Drill	Recess, including Drill	Recess	Recess, including Drill	Recess, including Drill.
	11-11.45	Science	Drawing	Singing	Science	Drawing.
	11.45-12.30	„	„	Drill	„	„
1st Year	2-2.20	Preparation of Lessons	Preparation of Lessons	Preparation of Lessons	Preparation of Lessons	Preparation of Lessons.
	2.30-3.30	Laundry	Needlework	Needlework	Cookery	Cookery.
	3.30-4.30	„	„	„	„	„
2nd Year	2-2.30	Preparation of Lessons	Preparation of Lessons	Preparation of Lessons	Preparation of Lessons	Preparation of Lessons.
	2.30-3.30	(*a.*) Needlework	(*a.*) Cookery	(*a.*) Needlework	(*a.*) Ambulance	(*a.*) Needlework.
		(*b.*) Cookery	(*b.*) Needlework	(*b.*) Cookery	(*b.*) Nursing and Domestic Economy.	(*b.*) Cookery.
	3.30-4.30	„	„	„	„ „	„
3rd Year	2-2.30	Preparation of Lessons	Preparation of Lessons	Preparation of Lessons	Preparation of Lessons	Preparation of Lessons.
	2.30-3.30	(*a.*) Needlework	(*a.*) Needlework	(*a.*) Housewifery	(*a.*) Needlework	(*a.*) Needlework.
		(*b.*) Cookery	(*b*) Cookery	(*b.*) Needlework	(*b.*) Cookery	(*b.*) Cookery.
	3.30-4.30	„	„	„	„	„

The scientific habit of mind in cookery work and the artistic and historical outlook in needlework render these handicrafts more interesting and more truly educational during school life, and they afford some guarantee that the educational effects of such study will go with the pupils into the practical life which comes when school days are ended.

The science teaching would include, if it did not presuppose, an elementary course in physics and chemistry of the kind set forth in the Code of Regulations for Evening Continuation Schools, and its aim would be to inculcate habits of right scientific study, and to bring out the scientific aspect of the handicraft subjects. It would include chemistry, physics, and such physiology teaching as is generally included in the subject of hygiene.

The mathematical work should include arithmetic, and this arithmetic should include such study of accounts and of the arithmetical requirements of the science classes as would bring out the practical side of the work and again make a link between the schoolroom and outside life. But this practical study must not be permitted to take the whole time, and mathematical training must be secured either by the introduction of geometry or by giving careful attention to the more scientific part of arithmetic teaching or by adding a course of elementary algebra, or probably by some combination of two out of these three subjects.

History should at least include some course on the life and duties of the citizen, with reference not only to present conditions, but also to the course of development shown in history, as that term is generally understood.

The improved methods of teaching geography, which are now largely adopted, make it scarcely necessary to enlarge upon what is meant by the term. But it should be remembered that geography and history are related studies, and their connexion must be brought out in the teaching of both, and both must further be duly correlated with the English teaching. The English lessons should have a two-fold aim: (1.) They should give to the pupils full command of their mother tongue as a means of expression, both in speech and in writing; to secure this the grammar work should give through knowledge and mastery of sentence construction, and analysis and composition should go hand in hand. There should be considerable practice in oral as well as in written work in both. Letters and other simple forms of continuous composition should receive careful attention. (2.) The literary side of English should have special care given to it, and while some masterpieces might be selected for the thorough study of language and form, as well as other literary excellences, there should also be some less minute study covering larger portions of our literature.

In this way, the power of careful literary study might be formed, and at the same time a habit of reading fostered.

There remain two parts of the time-table which call for a few words of remark.

Singing and physical exercise require no advocacy nowadays, and they take their place in the school curriculum as a matter of course.

The short break each morning allows for a very brief practice of the physical exercises which form part of the weekly lesson. It might be worth while in this connexion to consider how games might best be introduced into the school, so that girls might learn to play together, and have some practice in the work of organising themselves for a common object.

The hours may appear somewhat long, but the varied nature of the work must be borne in mind.

If it were found better, the half-hour's preparation work each afternoon might be struck out or made optional. The great object of this half-hour is to reduce the home preparation time and also to give the pupils the benefit of some tutorial supervision of their work. The teachers would be able to assist in forming good habits of work, and they would have opportunities of studying their pupils in a way which might materially aid them in understanding all the conditions under which the work is done.

The curriculum is not an ambitious one; to some it may even appear meagre. But it supplies an education at once practical and varied. Its chief omission is on the linguistic side. But a girl who had gone through the course laid down could not be said to be other than well educated, even if she did not know French. And if the work had been properly done, such a pupil would be prepared for the study of French or any other subject, if fitting opportunity offered. It is not in the number of subjects of which we know something that our mental power lies. It is, in our interest in study and our ability to learn, that we find our real strength. Both these would be adequately cared for in the course of study sketched above. In addition to this, the pupil leaving such a school would be a skilful handicraftswoman. Her practical power over life would be great, and she would know enough of woman's work to realise its importance and to do what fell to her share with interest and intelligence. The cultivated hand and eye, as well as the cultivated mind, would be hers, and her power of resource and initiative would be great.

The place allotted to handicrafts in the above scheme would impress a sense of their importance on the pupils, and the acquisition of real and lasting power would give them a sense of mastery over the details of everyday life.

Self-reliance and self-respect would be fostered by such training, and the pupils would go forth well-equipped to deal with ordinary daily routine, and to find in it occupation for all their powers and a source of fresh vigour for their energies.

The work that has already been done in developing better technical training in women's handicrafts is full of promise.

Needlework adapts itself to an organised and steadily progressive plan of teaching more easily than cookery, and the various departments of needlework have been well arranged.

In some centres the connexion between elementary art training and its application to needlework is cared for, and the syllabus for the training of teachers provides for this, and the history of costume also.

"Needlework; dressmaking, including plain sewing; cutting-out and making of under-garments; patching and darning; dress-cutting by the Grenfell and tailor-cutting methods; form, colour, and design, and the history of costume; theory and practice of education; voice production."

(BATTERSEA.)

"*Dressmaking.—Syllabus.*

"Drafting to measurement; cutting by measurement; fitting, correcting, making, trimmings; selection of materials, widths, qualities, &c.; choice of colours, styles, &c.; estimating cost of articles; history of dress; dress in relation to health, dress as an adornment; economy and taste in dress; economy and neatness in detail; necessary expenditure in dress."

(CARDIFF.)

Subjects for Advanced Certificate.

"Plain and fine needlework; mending and patching; measuring, cutting-out, and making-up underclothing for men, women, and children; cutting different kinds of garments to measure for models illustrating every variety of the human figure; preparation of stock patterns, cutting out by measure, fitting and making-up dresses and other garments; trimming and decorating with embroidery; smocking, illustrations of the various systems used; art embroidery; lessons in drawing; drawing to scale; geometrical and memory drawing; comparison, matching, and combination of colour, leading up to original design; hygiene, method lessons; book-keeping."

(LEEDS.)

The science course to be connected with the cookery course requires further development. Chemistry and physiology are included in all cases, but the standard reached varies. For students without previous scientific knowledge, the time given to training seems scarcely sufficient to do full justice to the theoretical and the practical side at once. Probably as the newer methods of elementary science teaching make their way, this part of women's technical work will receive more attention and will be better organised and better understood.

The schools which carry forward the work of the elementary schools generally adopt the curriculum of an Organised Science School.

The curriculum includes at least one foreign language, sometimes more, and the time given to needlework and cookery is not great. Laundry work is sometimes very inadequately treated, though it sometimes forms a substantial part of a course of training. This subject varies rather curiously as to its popularity or unpopularity amongst the pupils.

It is, indeed, an important advance to be able to note the general progress which women's technical education has made. The task now remains to consolidate the organisation which we have, and to perfect it here and there.

We have also to bring into prominence all the connexion with ordinary school studies afforded by the scientific and artistic and historical side of the handicrafts taught.

This will place all the technical training for girls and women on a sounder basis, and its proper place in education at different ages and different stages of school life will gradually be recognised.

The place to begin seems certainly to be after the elementary school age, and an experimental school of the kind suggested would be of great service in solving many problems connected with the best method of preparing girls for the life which awaits them when school time is over.

A. J. COOPER.

The Secondary Day School attached to the Battersea (London) Polytechnic.—An experiment in the co-education of boys and girls.

One of the most interesting features in the development of the institutes known as the London Polytechnics is their establishment of secondary day schools. Apart from any special features in their curricula, they merit attention from their relationship to the work of the Polytechnic proper, the manner in which they are necessarily influenced by it, and their position as a bridge between the elementary school and the technical institute. They cannot, therefore, be considered without regard to the work of the Polytechnic, of which they form but a comparatively small part, and for this purpose the following brief account of the Polytechnic movement will be found useful.

Establishment of Polytechnics.

Few more remarkable instances of the recent progress of technical education in this country could be quoted than the rapid foundation and development of the institutes known as the London Polytechnics. Up to October 1891 the only representatives were the Regent Street Polytechnic and the People's Palace at Mile End; now there are 11 (four of which have been opened since January 1894), with a total roll of probably not less than 30,000 individual students, representing 45,000 to 50,000 class entries. Naming them in their order of opening after the two above mentioned, they are the *Birkbeck Institute in Chancery Lane; the *City of London College, Moorfields; the Goldsmiths' Institute at New Cross; the Borough Polytechnic in Borough Road; the †Woolwich Polytechnic; the Battersea Polytechnic; the South-west London Polytechnic in Chelsea; the Northampton Institute in Clerkenwell; and the Northern Polytechnic in Holloway. The four last-named are located in entirely new buildings, designed and erected for the purpose. It is estimated that the 11 institutes represent a capital outlay of 500,000*l.*, and require 120,000*l.* per year for maintenance.

Efforts are now being made to establish a North-west Polytechnic in Paddington.

The establishment of these institutes, though largely due to the efforts of private persons interested in education, to private and public generosity, and later to the support of the London Technical Education Board, was only made permanently secure by the action of the Charity Commissioners in providing an

* The Birkbeck Institute and City of London College were at work prior to 1891, but have only recently been merged into the City Polytechnic, together with the Northampton Institute.

† Woolwich Polytechnic also existed prior to this date, but not in its present character.

endowment for each institute from funds placed at their disposal under the City of London Parochial Charities Act of 1883. The Commissioners formulated schemes of management, which, for the newer institutes, made the endowment conditional upon the raising of certain sums for building and equipment. The various schemes, though differing in details, are alike in defining the objects of the different institutes, which are: "the promotion "of the industrial skill, general knowledge, health, and well-"being of young men and women belonging to the poorer "classes," by means "of instruction in the general rules and "principles of the arts and sciences applicable to any handicraft, "trade, or business, and their practical application," "of instruc-"tion in other branches and subjects of art, science, literature, "and general knowledge," "of public lectures, musical, and "other entertainments and exhibitions," "of instruction and "practice in gymnastics, drill, and other bodily exercises," "of "facilities for the formation and meeting of clubs and societies," "and of "a library, reading room, and museum."

With what is practically a common scheme, there are naturally many points of close resemblance in the work of the different institutes; yet, fortunately, the schemes are sufficiently elastic to permit of very considerable variation and adaptation to circumstances. Remembering the dual character of the objects as defined by the schemes, which are briefly "educational" and "recreative," it may be said that one chief point of difference in the work done is in the relative position given to these two objects. In some institutes, as Regent Street and New Cross, there is a large membership of persons for recreative work, who are not attending any educational class; in others, as Battersea and Chelsea, the recreative advantages are restricted to students, and no other persons are allowed to use the institutes. Other points of difference are seen in the methods of internal management and organisation; in the specialisation in particular subjects and departments of work; and the character and extent of day schools or classes.

Battersea Polytechnic. Foundation.

The Battersea Polytechnic is one of the three institutes which owe their establishment largely to the work of the South London Polytechnics' Committee, a body formed in 1887, under the presidency of the Prince of Wales, the other two institutions being the Goldsmiths' Institute at New Cross and the Borough Polytechnic. The scheme for this Polytechnic was approved by Her Majesty in Council on June 23rd, 1891, and provided for an endowment of 2,500*l.* per year, conditional upon the sum of 60,000*l.* being raised for the purposes of erection and equipment. By October 1891 over 50,000*l.* was secured, which sum included one donation of 20,000*l.*, and two of 10,000*l.*; but it was not until 1895 that a grant of 1,700*l.* from the Technical Education Board enabled the Polytechnic to complete the 60,000*l.*, and to claim its full endowment. The foundation stone of the buildings was laid by the Prince of Wales on July 20, 1891, and the Polytechnic was formally opened by His Royal Highness on

February 24th, 1894, classes having been commenced on January 4th preceding.

Governing body.

The South London Polytechnics' Committee dissolved in October 1891, leaving the work in the hands of the governing body constituted by the scheme. This body numbers 15 members, and includes three representatives of the Central Governing Body of the London Parochial Charities Foundation, two of the London County Council and the London School Board, and three of the Technical Education Board, the other members being co-optative.

Site and buildings.

*The Polytechnic is built upon a piece of land 2¼ acres in area and formerly part of the grounds of the Albert Palace; and has a frontage to the Battersea Park Road. The site is on the direct line of one of the South London tramways, within easy reach of three railway stations, near to large engineering, building, chemical, and other works, and immediately surrounded by a population, chiefly composed of clerks and artisans, estimated to number at least 150,000 within a radius of one mile. Since the opening of the Polytechnic there has been a considerable building of small houses and flats suitable for the working classes in its immediate neighbourhood. The buildings cover an area of nearly 57,000 sq. ft. with a frontage of 310 ft., the main portion being of three floors without basement. The accommodation includes laboratories for mechanics, engineering, physics, electrical work, chemistry, botany and biology, and photography, with workshops for carpenters and joiners, engineers, smiths, painters and house decorators, plasterers, plumbers, masons, bricklayers, and electrical work. Up to July 1896 the total sum expended on land, buildings, and fittings amounted to 64,281*l.* The Technical Education Board make annual grants for new equipment and apparatus.

Revenue.

The revenue of the Polytechnic is derived from (*a*) the endowment of 2,500*l.* previously mentioned; (*b*) contributions from the Technical Education Board, which for 1895–6 amounted to 3,166*l.*, not including a grant for equipment; (*c*) special grants from the Central Governing Body, which for the past three years have been 1,000*l.*; (*d*) students' fees, which for last session amounted to 2,254*l.*; and (*e*) grants from the Science and Art Department and the City and Guilds of London Institute upon the results of examinations, which for the last two sessions have amounted to 653*l.* and 1,024*l.* respectively. The grants under (*b*) and (*c*) vary with the work done; for the current year the revenue receipts from all sources are estimated to amount to nearly 10,000*l.* The expenditure for the last financial year amounted to 9,887*l.* in which the chief items were :—Salaries and wages, 6,765*l.*; rent, rates, and taxes, 713*l.*; heating and lighting, 693*l.*; printing, stationery, and advertising, 321*l.*;

* For full details with illustrations *see* "The Record of Technical and Secondary Education" (London: Macmillan) for Oct. 1896.

materials for classes, 271*l.*; repairs, 203*l.* A reserve fund of 400*l.* per year is set aside for depreciation.

Organisation.

The general responsibility for the whole of the organisation, control, and working of the Polytechnic is centred in the Principal, this being the first instance of such a position in connexion with a polytechnic institute. Each of the chief departments of mechanical engineering and building trades, physics and electrical engineering, chemistry, art, and women's work is under the immediate direction of a head. The teaching staff now numbers 70, of whom 26 give their whole time to the work of the Polytechnic, the remainder being engaged in day or evening classes only. The clerical and establishment staff number 26.

Work of Polytechnics.

The chief work of a polytechnic institute is, as already indicated, in the conduct of evening classes for both sexes. Tables are given in Appendix A., which show the different departments into which the classes are grouped, the number of classes and subjects in each, and the class entries for the first two sessions. Particulars are also given relating to the ages and occupations of students and to the fees paid. These will suffice to show something of the nature and extent of the chief and largest work of the Polytechnic, and may be taken as an example of the class of work done in the polytechnic institutes generally, allowing, of course, for specialisation in different departments according to the needs of the district in which the Polytechnic is placed.

The cosmopolitan character of the work will be at once apparent, for not only is almost every section of technology, science, art, music, domestic economy, and of commercial and general educational subjects represented in their curricula, from almost the most elementary to the highest stages, but persons from nearly every social class are found among their students. Though primarily for the "poorer classes," the schemes give no power of refusal; and the teacher wishing to study for a science degree finds equal facilities with the young artisan seeking instruction applicable to his trade; or the domestic servant desirous of learning to make her own dresses, with her more favoured sister studying for qualifications in art.

In one or two of the older institutes separate classes for men and women are provided in subjects which are common to both; but in the newer Polytechnics, including Battersea, the sexes meet on equal terms in the same class rooms except in a few subjects (chiefly in domestic economy) which are open only to women. The same conditions apply to many of the clubs and societies; the purpose being to facilitate rather than discourage the meeting of the sexes under conditions tending to their mutual well-being. The writer is not aware of any instances where this plan has proved other than beneficial. The usual proportion of women to men students is about one third.

Of the vastness of the work represented by 11 such institutes as this there will be no question, and of its general utility as a

great instructive and humanising factor there is little doubt. With such large numbers it is not surprising to find that very many of the students are of the casual temporary order, coming and going for a term or a session with apparently little of the real spirit or ideas of co-ordinated or continued study. The subjects most largely attended are those of the essentially practical utilitarian character, knowledge being sought as a means of "livelihood" and seldom as a means of "life." Yet, remembering the class from which the majority of students come, there is much to show solid progress, and everything to encourage. A great deal is being done to systematise and co-ordinate courses of study; to encourage continuous and advanced and research work, to introduce subjects of general culture; to *educate* as well as *instruct* and to foster the conduct and thought which makes for the highest form of citizenship.

Day schools.

It is, then, on this widespreading and still growing tree that there has been grafted secondary day school work. This, though intended primarily to utilise existing forces, shows promise of producing results which will leaven the whole institution and supply the qualities now missing. Some of these have already been mentioned, and by no means the least important is the bridging of the gap between the elementary school and the Polytechnic proper. One of the greatest difficulties, if not indeed the greatest, in Polytechnic work is the uneducated state of many of the students who apply for admission, a condition produced by their having left school at too young an age, and having during the years since that time forgotten almost everything they ever learned there.

Secondary school at Battersea.

At the Battersea Polytechnic the establishment of a secondary day school was suggested by the absence of any school of the special character proposed in the neighbourhood. It was also felt that the school would permit the employment of a staff of teachers whose whole time would be given to the service of the institute, thereby raising very considerably the standard of its work and imparting to it a tone which is impossible with occasional teachers. But in view of the character of the Polytechnic, and of the existence in the neighbourhood of a secondary boys' school of the ordinary type, and of a small grammar school, it was decided that the work of the school should be largely scientific and technical, and primarily intended for boys who having passed through elementary schools, desired to continue their education with a view to future work in technical or scientific callings.

The school opened in January 1894 with an entry of 45 boys, which increased during the following term to 65. The majority came direct from the sixth or seventh standards of neighbouring public elementary schools, and were the sons of artisans resident in the district. In commencing the second school year (September 1894) the school became an Organised Science School under the new rules of the Science and Art Department, and at the opening of the following year (September 1895) the

school was opened to girls, it having been decided to try the experiment of co-education. The entry of girls for the first term was 10, which increased during the year to 18.

Subjects of study.

The subjects of study with the hours allotted to each, together with certain extracts from the school rules and prospectus, are given in Appendix B. Home work is a regular institution; that for the junior division averaging 1½ hours, and for the senior division 2 hours each evening, the time for each being slightly reduced during the summer term.

Fees and scholarships.

The school fees are 10*s.* per half term or 20*s.* per term, payable in advance. These include all books and materials. At the commencement of each term every student receives the requisite text-books, note-books, pencils, and pen; the text-book being returned to the school when the student changes classes or leaves. There is a rule that all loss or damage other than that caused by reasonable wear and tear must be made good.

Scholarships.

The gift of a sum of money for providing scholarships for the Polytechnic generally enables three scholarships to be awarded annually, which provide free places. Two other scholarships of 5*l.* per annum have also been awarded from private sources during the past three years. The need for further scholarships has not been felt, owing to the liberal provision of junior county scholarships by the Technical Education Board. During the current year 36 students (29 boys and 7 girls) hold these scholarships, having gained them before entry. The Intermediate Scholarships of the same Board also provide means for further study.

Attendance and age.

During the current term the number in attendance is 139, 100 boys and 39 girls. The average age of the senior division is 15 years, and of the junior divisions 14 years 3 months. There are 5 boys and 5 girls over the age of 16, and 6 boys and 6 girls under 13 years of age.

General working of school.

From the first opening of the school special efforts have been made to create and sustain the larger view of school life; that spirit and feeling which makes the great public schools of this country so valuable in their educational influence. The school was divided into "forms" with a "form master"; and "form methods" adopted as far as other arrangements permitted. Each form meets in its "form room" for call over before school opens for the day, after which they assemble for prayers, which are read by the Principal. These are confined to a few verses of Scripture, and the Lord's Prayer; and exemption from attendance is granted where requested by the parent, although only two such requests have been made. In matters of discipline the students have been taught to realise that having ceased to be children they should have given up childish things; they are present to work, not to play, and their duty to their parents and themselves calls them to take every advantage of the opportunities afforded; in a word, they are not expected to commit acts against discipline—they are trusted. Each form was made to recognise its corporate capacity, and to be respon-

sible for the actions of its individual members, following, in brief, the method of Mr. Thring, the head master of Uppingham, who when boys were found fighting, thrashed not only the principals and seconds *but every boy who looked on.* The upper forms especially were treated as incapable of committing acts against order, and therefore such offences became rather breaches of trust than of discipline; and this spirit has met with a most gratifying response, it being quite the exception for a senior student to require punishment, although, of course, interviews with the form master or Principal are sometimes necessary. From the very beginning the punishment for unpunctuality has been "penal drill," the result being that punctuality is a marked feature, it being not uncommon to find only one or two students registered in one week as being late. Senior students are told off each day to ascertain the chief events recorded in the newspapers, and to record them on a blackboard, which all the school are expected to read, to be afterwards questioned on the events in their English classes. In the same way a record is made of daily weather observations. All boys are required to wear the school cap, and the habit of "capping" the teachers outside the school is willingly adopted. Each term sees its "drill competitions" between the different forms for a shield presented by the Principal, its inter-form cricket or football matches for a challenge cup presented by the masters, and matches between the masters and school. The end of term sees its gymnastic displays, or concerts with acting and recitals, to which parents and friends are invited. Three school captains are elected each term, the method being that they are proposed and seconded, and voted for by the whole school. The captains have authority outside the class-rooms, and their position is readily and loyally acknowledged. So far a "girl" captain has not been tried, but the question is under consideration. The captains constitute the games committee, together with certain of the masters, and arrange the games of the school, matches with other schools, and the annual athletic sports, which have hitherto been conducted with great spirit and success. The school contains a small lending library managed by the students, and there also exists a magazine club, a field club for natural history rambles, a debating society, and a school magazine printed monthly, all of which are conducted by the students, and having arisen as a natural outcome of the carefully trained *esprit de corps* and general tone of the school have flourished in the best manner.

These features would, of course, be regarded as quite customary in a public school or other high-class secondary school; but it should be remembered that the school in question differs very essentially from these. Apart from the previous training of the students concerned, and the habits of the class from which they come, there are the greater differences due to the relation of the school to the polytechnic work generally, and its necessary co-ordination with it. All but two of the teaching staff were

engaged primarily for work in the evening classes; they are specialists in particular subjects, and, except in two instances, without previous experience of school work. Hence the teaching is divided amongst a greater number than in an ordinary school, very few teachers taking more than one subject. Then, again, the building is much larger than required for the school only, and the whole arrangements are those of a technical institute, not of an ordinary secondary school.

Of course the results have not been gained without training. To give the tone and spirit to the first batch of boys fresh from the board schools, and subject to other influences not always of the most helpful character, was no easy task, but the spirit, once caught by the boys, has remained and developed. For the past two years one of the masters, a man of exceptional powers in this direction, has been recognised as out-of-school master, acting as guide and counsellor, and, where necessary, as a restraining influence. The expense of the games and sports is borne by a fixed grant of 6*d.* per term per student from the funds of the Polytechnic, and by subscriptions from the students.

Co-instruction and co-education.

Perhaps the greatest interest of all attaches to the fact of the school being a mixed one of boys and girls. From the commencement of the experiment it was decided to make as little difference as possible in the treatment of the boys and girls; and the only variation is that the girls assemble together for call over by a mistress, and not with their respective forms, that when the boys are at manual training the girls take domestic economy, that the girls drill separately from the boys, and that boys and girls do not sit next each other in the class-rooms or work in pairs in the practical classes. Apart from this, the treatment, both in and out of school, is the same; the girls compete with the boys on equal terms in all their classes with the single exception mentioned, and are subject to the same rules of discipline. They have common membership of the various clubs and societies, and hold places on the committees and on the editorial staff of the magazines. They take part in the entertainments and gymnastic displays, and dine in the same room, although at separate tables. In the matter of games the mixing of boys and girls has been gradually led up to, so that now the girls find a place in the inter-form hockey matches; their selection being subject to the same rules as for the boys, with perhaps a little tendency to exaggerate their skill. Occasionally a team of girls play against boys at hockey, and, although allowed more "men," are generally unsuccessful so far as winning is concerned, though highly successful in gaining a knowledge of the art of combination and method, in which, as compared with boys, they show much deficiency. Everything, indeed, is done to break down all false barriers between the sexes, and to promote co-education in the fullest sense of the word, always, of course, under proper supervision and without forcing. Among the girls themselves, there is a great deal of *esprit de corps*, a spirit which it is thought well to foster. They

are believed to be agreed that no girl should act so as to merit punishment, and to be resolved that they will be better behaved than the boys; the result being that offences against discipline on the part of the girls are exceedingly rare, instances of unpunctuality—such is their resolve not to incur penal drill—being quite exceptional. The girls are specially looked after by a mistress, who enters very fully into their out-of-school work and their relations with the boys, with the spirit of which she is in thorough sympathy and has done much to create and guide.

Work in school.

In the matter of instruction, it may be said generally that the girls take very excellent positions. The form lists for last term, term work and examinations combined, showed that in one division (17 boys, 7 girls) the girls took first, second, eighth, ninth, and tenth places; in another division (11 boys, 12 girls) they took second, sixth, eighth, ninth, and twelfth places; and in a third division (17 boys, 4 girls) the girls took first and fourth places. The average age of the girls is slightly higher than of the boys in the same class. Generally speaking, the girls lack powers of initiative, and, as compared with the boys, are slower, though neater, in their work. In mathematics and science subjects they are weaker, and in literary subjects stronger, than the boys; for example, there are no girls in the first class in mathematics, and only two in the second class with 16 boys, while in the lowest class there are 16 girls to 17 boys. On the other hand, girls are usually at the top of the form lists for English subjects. The net effect of mixed classes has been to stimulate competition, to improve order, and to raise the general tone. Girls lose many little personal vanities and their tendency to titter and giggle, they acquire more vigour, energy, and self-reliance, they learn to speak out and speak up, and to be less self-conscious. Boys are better mannered and softer spoken, and grow to be more careful and reflective over their work. In a general love of mischief the girls are more manageable than the boys; but in the matter of *talking* in class the former are more troublesome than the latter. While a boy regards punishment as something inevitable; the girls are inclined to argue against it, and to feel themselves injured when punished.

Out of school.

The result of mixing out of school is that the girls have learned to be self-reliant and braver, to organise and obey, and to play games such as hockey with more science and skill; while boys have grown more sympathetic and regardful of others' feelings, to be less rough in deed and coarse in word, and to be more tidy. These are surely great things. On the more troublesome side of the mixing of the sexes very little difficulty has been found, although some might have been expected, remembering the ages of some of the senior students. The girls are more interested in "love-making" than the boys, and are more given to the practice of writing "love letters," but the greater opportunities for communication have apparently lessened the desire to communicate, and the perfect naturalness

of the intercourse, revealing as it does the little faults and failings of temper and disposition, existing as it does in an atmosphere of healthy class rivalry, of a rational sharing of work and play, and of equality in the school laws, does much to kill out these weaknesses and the "doll" and equally objectionable "idol" view with which boys are wont to regard girls. There is need for constant watchfulness of course; and there is a possible difficulty arising from inability to control the meetings between the boys and girls away from the school; but these would take place in any case, and, it is hoped, are healthier in character because of their school training.

It is too soon to look for many results, for so far the time has been one of sowing, and the reaping has yet to come. Much is looked for from the work of the school in sending out well-trained students who will continue in attendance at evening classes and carry on their studies without break, and thus test the efficiency of polytechnic work at its best. With such students co-ordinated and advanced work will be possible; and they may be expected to possess a love of knowledge for its own sake, as distinct from its financial value. But beyond this they will be imbued with a recognition of and a regard for their "alma mater," with a wider view of their duty towards it and their fellow students, and a higher sense of their responsibility as citizens and as workers in the common battle of life.

Duration of school life.

The following are the lengths of time during which the present students have been in the school, including the current term (Easter to Midsummer):—For 3⅔ years, 4; 3 years, 3; 2⅔ years, 5; 2⅓ years, 2; 2 years, 22; 1⅔ years, 17; 1⅓ years, 6; 1 year, 37; ⅔ year, 28; ⅓ year, 15.

Old students.

Efforts are made to keep in touch with all students who leave the school and to ascertain their occupations. But, unfortunately, this is not always easy; the parents are of a migratory class, and removals from the neighbourhood are frequent; nor do they recognise their obligations to the school as fully as could be wished. Students are frequently removed without notice, letters of inquiry are not answered, and all too often circumstances triumph over intentions and students are suddenly taken away to accept situations which are quite different in character to that which it was hoped they would fill. Of the 150 students who have left the school, the occupations of only a few are known and these are about equally divided between trades and industries and commercial work.

During the current session of evening classes a number of old day school boys are in attendance; those engaged in technical or science work having taken up subjects in a course of study arranged for a definite purpose, such as gaining some scholarship or educational or professional qualification, and extending over a number of years. It is hoped that the number of these will be continually increased, as much for their own good as for that of the community.

Schools in other polytechnic.

Of the 11 polytechnic institutes mentioned in the early part of this article, only four conduct secondary day schools, namely, Regent Street, People's Palace, Battersea, and Chelsea: the last two only being open to girls as well as boys. At least three others are now arranging to conduct such schools, and the next few years will probably see a still further extension. It deserves notice that all but three of the institutes conduct, or will shortly be conducting, day schools of domestic economy for girls who have passed through the public elementary schools. The course of instruction lasts over five months, and the majority of the girls hold scholarships from the London County Council. Battersea Polytechnic also conducts a training school for teachers in all branches of domestic economy.

SIDNEY H. WELLS,
Principal.

May 1897.

APPENDIX A.

BATTERSEA POLYTECHNIC.—EVENING CLASSES.

EXTRACTS from REPORTS and PROSPECTUS.

Abstract of Classes and Entries, Sessions 1894–95.

Department.	January to June 1894.		October 1894 to June 1895.		Class Entries.	
	No. of Subjects.	No. of Classes.	No. of Subjects.	No. of Classes.	January to June 1894.	October 1894 to June 1895.
1. Mechanical engineering and building—general and trade classes.	14	17	23	42	426	1,315
2. Physics and electrical engineering.	3	5	5	12	146	287
3. Chemistry - - -	1	3	5	16	32	250
4. Mathematics - - -	2	3	2	7	110	261
5. Natural science - -	2	3	2	6	82	86
6. Photography - -	1	2	1	4	32	75
7. Art - - - -	11	21	12	27	280	520
8. Commercial and general -	9	20	9	32	1,102	1,509
9. Music - - -	12	21	13	30	966	1,427
10. Classes for women only -	9	20	10	24	408	725
11. Gymnastics - - -	—	—	—	—	593	1,010
Total (for evening classes) -	64	115	82	200	4,177	7,465

N.B.—The entries in departments Nos. 1 to 6 are for the session, September to May or June; those for Nos. 8 to 11 are quarterly entries; for No. 7, Art, part sessional and part quarterly.

Class Entries and Number of Students, Second Session.
October 1894 to June 1895.

	Class Entries.			Individual Students.			New Students.		
	Men.	Women.	Total.	Men.	Women.	Total.	Men.	Women.	Total.
1st term - -	2,522	1,165	3,687	1,528	789	2,317	—	—	2,317
2nd term - -	1,192	1,071	2,263	934	718	1,652	208	215	423
3rd term - -	638	877	1,515	527	589	1,116	87	104	191
Total -	4,352	3,113	7,465	2,989	2,096	5,085	—	—	2,931

N.B.—About 1,600 of the entries during 1st term are "sessional" and continue for 2nd and 3rd terms. Other entries are for the term only.

Ages and Occupations of Students.—During the first session particulars were obtained relating to the ages and occupations of students.

The results were as follows :—

Ages.—Under 16, 385 ; between 16 and 25, 1,563 ; over 25, 458.

Occupations.—Men.—Building trades, 240 ; engineering and metal trades, 137 ; electrical work, 46 ; general trades, 286 ; commercial work, 548 ; teachers and students, 114 ; miscellaneous and not stated, 185.

Women.—Needlework, millinery, and dressmaking, 106 ; general trades or businesses, 52 ; domestic servants, 57 ; commercial work, 63 ; teachers and students, 245 ; home duties, 337 ; miscellaneous and not stated, 5.

Fees for Evening Classes.—For technical or science classes lectures, or lectures and drawing only, one evening per week, 5*s.* per session ; lectures and drawing, with laboratory or workshop, two evenings per week, 10*s.* per session. There are also certain mensuration and drawing classes, at fees of 2*s.* to 2*s.* 6*d.* per quarter. In art subjects the fees vary from 2*s.* to 12*s.* per quarter, depending upon subject and number of classes per week. In commercial and language classes the fees are from 4*s.* to 5*s.* per quarter for one lesson weekly, and in music subjects the fees are from 1*s.* 6*d.* per quarter upwards.

Tools, instruments, drawing boards, materials, &c. are provided in the practical classes ; and the higher fees may generally be paid in two instalments.

Membership.—Membership of the institute is open to any student, between 16 and 25 years of age, upon payment of a registration fee of 1*s.*, and of a subscription as follows :—

Men, 2*s.* per quarter, or 6*s.* per year.
Women, 1*s.* per quarter, or 3*s.* per year.

The governing body are able to admit a small number of students above the age of 25 years as members, upon payment of a registration fee of 1*s.* and a subscription as above.

Privileges of Members.—Members are entitled to the following privileges :—

Admission to ordinary evening classes at reduced prices except where otherwise stated.

Admission to lectures and entertainments at reduced fees.

Use of reading room, which is supplied with daily and weekly papers and periodicals.

Use of common rooms, where provision is made for billiards, bagatelle, chess, draughts, and other games.

Admission to athletic and social clubs and societies at reduced fees.

APPENDIX B.

Organised Science Day Schools.

Extracts from Prospectus, &c.

The school is primarily intended for boys and girls who have passed through an elementary school, and desire to continue their general education or to receive training in preparation for the workshop and manufactory, the scientific branches of the Civil Service, and other occupations in which a knowledge is required of Science, technology, or domestic economy.

The training given will be found specially suitable for boys intending to engage in civil, mechanical, and electrical engineering, architecture or building; for girls who intend to become teachers of science, art, or domestic economy, or lecturers under county councils.

The course of teaching extends over three years, and aims at imparting a thoroughly sound secondary education, with special provision for the study of pure and applied science, manual training, workshop practice, and domestic economy.

The school does not prepare for the commercial profession nor for the ordinary branches of the Civil Service, but the elementary course will be found suitable for all boys and girls who desire to continue their general education beyond the elementary schools. It is not intended that the training of the school shall replace the ordinary apprenticeship.

Admission to the school is limited to boys and girls who have obtained entrance scholarships from a public elementary school, or who have passed the 6th Standard of the Educational Code or its equivalent, or who shall exhibit such exceptional knowledge as shall warrant the governing body in assuming that they will be able to profit by the advanced education offered. All applicants for admission to the school, except

those holding scholarships, will be required to pass an entrance examination.

The governors are very anxious that the discipline and moral tone of the school shall be of the highest possible character, and every student must render obedience to all the school rules. The principal is empowered by the governors to expel any boy or girl whose continuance in the school shall be deemed by him to be detrimental to its welfare.

It is expected that students will maintain a regular attendance, and parents are particularly requested not to keep them from school during school hours. All cases of absence must be reported to the principal in writing, or students must bring with them a letter to their form master or mistress, explaining the cause of their absence. Unless this is done the absence will be regarded as a breach of school rules. Unpunctuality in attendance, and neglect of evening work, or disorderly conduct in coming to or leaving the Polytechnic, are regarded as breaches of school discipline, and will be punished accordingly.

The Polytechnic provides all necessary books and other materials free of cost, except for needlework and dressmaking, but everything must remain the property of the Polytechnic. Parents are required to give a guarantee to pay for any damage or loss to buildings, apparatus, or materials caused by the carelessness of the student, and they will be informed when materials are issued to the students. Students are supplied with sufficient books for the work of the term, and if these are used wastefully they will be required to provide others.

Progress reports will be sent to parents each month, and detailed reports at the end of each term.

School Hours.

Morning—9.30 to 12.30.

Afternoon—2 to 4.30.

No school on Saturdays.

School Year, 1896–7.

First Term.—Tuesday, September 15th, to Wednesday, December 23rd.

Second Term.—Tuesday, January 5th, to Wednesday, April 14th.

Third Term.—Tuesday, April 27th, to Friday, July 23rd.

Subjects of Study.

Mechanical Division.—Mathematics, 5 hours. Mechanics, 3½ hours. Physics, 3½ hours. Drawing, 4 hours. English subjects, 4 hours. French, 2 hours. Manual training, 4½ hours. Drill, 1 hour.

Science Division.—Mathematics, 5 hours. Mechanics, 2½ hours. Physics, 3½ hours. Chemistry, 4½ hours. Drawing, 3 hours. English subjects, 4 hours. French, 2 hours. Manual training, 2 hours. Drill, 1 hour

Elementary Divisions.—Mathematics, 5 hours. Physics, 3 hours. Chemistry, 2½ hours. Drawing, 3 hours. English subjects, 5 hours. French, 3 hours. Art, 2 hours. Manual training or domestic economy, 3 hours. Drill, 1 hour.

N.B.—The subjects of physics, chemistry, and mechanics include from 1½ to 2½ hours' laboratory work.

A brief Sketch of the History of the Irish System of Elementary Education (with a Table of Dates showing the reciprocal influence of Irish on English, and of English on Irish, Education).

Early educational legislation in Ireland.

National education in Ireland began in 1537, when the Irish Parliament established parochial schools, enacting "that the "English tongue, habit, and order be henceforth (and without "ceasing or returning at any time to Irish habit or language) "used by all men." As, under Poynings' Act (1494), no Bill could be considered by the Irish Parliament unless it had previously been approved by the English Privy Council, this educational measure may be regarded as evidence that the National Government recognised the provision of elementary instruction for the Irish people as necessary and expedient. In 1570 the Act of the 12th of Elizabeth established diocesan schools. These were purely Protestant schools, while the Irish Parliament schools were intended mainly for poorer Catholics. In 1608 the Royal Free Schools were founded. There were six of these schools in Armagh, Cavan, Raphoe, Enniskillen, Dungannon, and Banagher. Banagher School is not now in operation. The annual income of these schools is nearly 7,000*l.* per annum.

The Erasmus Smith schools.

In 1657 Erasmus Smith, an alderman of the City of London,* gave certain lands to trustees, who, under license from the Lord Protector, were to fulfil the donor's "great and "ardent desire that the poor children inhabiting upon any part "of the lands of Ireland . . . should be brought up in the "fear of God and good literature," because "most of the sins "which in former times have reigned in this nation have "proceeded chiefly of lacke of bringing up of the youth of "this realm, either in publique or private schooles, whereby, "through good discipline, they might be principled in literature "and good manners, and so learn to loathe those haynous and "manifold offences which, when they come to years, they daily "perpetrate and commit."† The charter establishing Erasmus Smith's schools is dated 1669; in 1868 the schools on this foundation numbered 144.‡ The practice of the trustees was to take a conveyance of land from landowners, and to contribute, say, three fourths and sometimes the entire amount of the building of the premises. Out of 6,845 scholars in 1868 only 372

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* Royal Commission on Primary Education (Ireland), vol. iii., p. 539, Q. 12 693.

† The original indenture of Erasmus Smith, printed in above report, Q. 12,754.

‡ *Ibid.*, Q. 12,694.

were Roman Catholics. In 1672 the Blue Coat Hospital Schools, which are exclusively Protestant, were founded.

Further statutes were passed on the subject of education by the Legislature in the reigns of Charles II., William III., and George I., "these laws . . . varying extremely in their character according "to the temper of the times and the disposition of the Govern- "ment and the Legislature."* The 7th William III. c. 4. was enacted to retrain the education of the Irish in foreign countries, and imposed penalties on Catholic teachers. The Irish Act 5 George II. (1732) provided for the grant of an acre of land for the use of Protestant schoolmasters, to teach "the English tongue." In 1733 the Protestant Charter schools were established, the Royal Charter reciting "that in many "parts of Our said kingdom there are great tracts of mountainy "and coarse land . . . almost entirely inhabited by Papists, "and that in most parts of the same, and more especially in the "provinces of Leinster, Munster, and Connaught, the Papists far "exceed the Protestants of all denominations in number; that "the generality of the Popish natives appear to have very little "sense or knowledge of religion but what they implicitly take "from their clergy, to whose guidance in such matters they "seem wholly to give themselves up, and thereby are kept, not "only in gross ignorance, but also in great disaffection to Our "person and government, scarce any of them appearing to have "been willing to abjure the Pretender to Our throne. So that "if some effectual method be not made use of to instruct these "great numbers of people in the principles of true religion and "loyalty, there is little prospect but that superstition, idolatry, "and disaffection to Us and Our royal posterity will, from "generation to generation be propagated amongst them. That "amongst the ways proper to be taken for converting and "civilizing of the said deluded persons and bringing them "(through the blessing of God) in time to be good Christians "and faithful subjects, one of the most necessary, and without "which all others are likely to prove ineffectual, has always "been thought to be the erecting and establishing a sufficient "number of *English* Protestant schools, wherein the children of "the Irish natives may be instructed in the English tongue and "the fundamental principles of true religion. That in pursuance "thereof, the parish ministers . . . have generally endea- "voured, and often with some expence to themselves, to "provide masters for such schools within their respective "parishes, as the law requires them to do; but the richer "Papists commonly refusing to send their children to such "schools, and the poorer (which are much the greater number) "not being able to pay the accustomed salary, as the law "directs, for their children's schooling, such schoolmasters "(where they have been placed) have seldom been able to

The Protestant Charter schools

* Report of Select Committee of House of Commons on Education in Ireland Reports 1828.

" subsist; and, in most places, sufficient masters are utterly " discouraged from undertaking such an employment; nor is it " to be expected that the residence of the Protestant clergy, " upon their respective benefices, will ever be a sufficient remedy " for this growing evil, if some effectual encouragement be not " given to such English Protestant schools. To the intent " therefore that the children of the Popish and other poor " natives of Our said kingdom of Ireland may be instructed in " the *English* tongue and in the principles of true religion and " loyalty in all succeeding generations . . . We of Our " especial grace, certain knowlege, and mere motion . . . " have granted . . . that (here follows a list of names) " shall be one society, corporation, and body politic to have " continuance for ever by the name of the Incorporated Society " in Dublin for promoting English Protestant Schools in Ire- " land."* Until 1803 these schools received none but Roman Catholic pupils. Howard spoke of their internal condition in unfavourable terms.†

In 1769 the Hibernian Military School for soldiers' children was established by Royal Charter. The Hibernian Marine School (not now in existence) was established in 1775. A Protestant Female Orphan School aided by Parliamentary grants was opened in Dublin in 1790; the school is still in operation. The Association for Discountenancing Vice was established in 1792, and maintained schools erected by Parliamentary grants from 1800 to 1827. All the children were required to read the Scriptures.

The Schools of the Christian Brothers.

In 1802 the Order of Irish Christian Brothers was founded in the city of Waterford by Edmond Rice, a wealthy merchant of that place, who about 1793 conceived the idea of retiring from business and spending the remainder of his days in religious retirement at Rome. At that time, however, " the long-continued " operation of the penal laws in prohibiting all Catholic educa- " tion had reduced the lower classes of the population to extreme " ignorance, and their sad condition, resulting from that igno- " rance, had enlisted for them the sympathy of many benevolent " individuals."‡ The convents had provided education for girls in Waterford, but for boys no similar opportunities existed. Edmond Rice, therefore, " seriously deliberated with himself " whether it would not be more advantageous to religion and " more conducive to the salvation of souls that he should remain " in Waterford for that object than carry out his first idea of " embracing a life of complete seclusion. He felt himself strongly " inclined to the instruction of the poor in consequence of the

* Royal Charter of King George II., 1733, printed in report of Royal Commission of Inquiry into Primary Education (Ireland), vol. 8, pp. 104–7.

† "State Education for the People," Routledge, 1890, article, "National Education in Ireland." Lecky's History of Ireland, vol. 1, pp. 259, 509.

‡ Brief account of the origin, &c. of the Institute of Christian Brothers (furnished by the community to the Royal Commission on Primary Education in Ireland, and printed in their report, vol. 8, pp. 83–94).

" number of boys whom he daily met wandering about the " streets and suburban roads of the city in idleness and its usual " attendant, vice."*

Parallel between experience of Edmond Rice and Robert Raikes (of Gloucester).

There is thus a striking resemblance between the experience and undertakings of Edmond Rice and Robert Raikes, the well-to-do merchant in Gloucester, who thus explained the reason which had led him to the establishment of Sunday schools: "The beginning of the scheme," he wrote to a correspondent in 1783, "was entirely owing to accident. Some business leading " me one morning into the suburbs of the city, where the lowest " of the people, who are principally employed in the pin manu- " factory, chiefly reside, I was struck with concern at seeing a " group of children, wretchedly ragged, at play in the street. I " asked an inhabitant whether those children belonged to that " part of the town, and lamented their misery and idleness. " 'Ah, sir,' said the woman to whom I was speaking, 'could " 'you take a view of this part of the town on a Sunday, you " 'would be shocked indeed; for then the street is filled with " 'multitudes of these wretches, who, released on that day from " 'employment, spend their time in noise and riot, playing at " 'chuck, and cursing and swearing in a manner so horrid as to " 'convey to any serious mind an idea of hell rather than of " 'any other place.'" Raikes then goes on to explain that the idea of Sunday schools was thus suggested to him.†

Edmond Rice consulted several friends, and, finally abandoning his idea of going to Rome, devoted himself without reserve to the instruction of the poor of Waterford. He founded the Institute of Christian Brothers,‡ whose object was "the edu- " cation of male children, especially the poor, according to the " principles and teachings of the Catholic Church." The brothers were bound "always to teach gratis, contenting them- " selves with the glorious recompense promised to all 'who " 'instruct many unto justice' (Dan. xii. 13)." A classification of studies was drawn up, but "above all things the brothers " were to recollect that the instruction of the children in piety " and religion is the great and main end of their institute."§ Their endeavours were to be directed to keeping up order and regularity, and "particularly silence, the foundation of both," in their schools. The brothers were not in Holy Orders, there

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* Brief Account, &c., of Christian Brothers, p. 84.

† Raikes' letter, quoted in "The Day, the Book, and the Teacher," p. 25 (Sunday School Union).

‡ The original Christian Brothers, or as they are called the "Brothers of the " Christian Schools" were founded by the Abbé de la Salle in 1684 at Rheims. The Abbé was a *priest*, but his followers were bound by vow not to take Holy Orders. He was one of the pioneers of primary and free education and the inventor of the simultaneous system of teaching. There are now several schools belonging to the French Order in connexion with the National Board, and there is also a Training College for National Teachers under the "Brothers of the Christian Schools" at Waterford; but no branch of this Order was established in Ireland until 1884, so that, so far as Ireland is concerned, Edmond Rice's organization had priority of foundation.

§ Report of Commission on Primary Education (Ireland), vol. 8, pp. 84–85.

being on the contrary "an express rule against their aspiring to the priesthood."* Novices were subjected to a severe preparation; none were taken whose services were necessary to their families, and each of them had, before being admitted a life member of the institute, to undergo probation for 11 years.† The institute was governed by a superior general, who, with two assistants, formed a council to carry on the institute according to established rule. The greater part of the establishments of the institute were, in 1867, chiefly dependent for support on the voluntary contributions of the localities in which they were situated.‡ In 1867 the institute had 60 distinct establishments, 225 schoolrooms, 26,871 pupils (of from 7–14 years of age) on its rolls, and 391 brothers (including those in England). The personal expenses of the brothers in the same year, including the executive and training departments, amounted to 13,347*l.*§ Some of the brothers taught, others attended to domestic duties.‖ [In 1868 their representative complained to the Commissioners on Primary Education in Ireland that they laboured under this disability, that "it is criminal, in the present state of "the law, to take vows, and that we are liable to be transported "for life if convicted of the fact. The Act of 1829 contains "that penal provision. . . In the present state of the law "we cannot hold property as a religious body . . but there "is no difficulty provided it is vested in trustees. It is then "perfectly secure."]¶

The Royal Commission of 1806–12.

The London Hibernian Society for scriptural education in schools was founded in 1806. Its funds were supplemented by grants from the Lord Lieutenant. In the same year, Commissioners were appointed under legislative authority to inquire into the state and condition of schools in Ireland. They sat for six years and made 14 reports on the schools of royal and private foundation, the charter schools, foundling hospital, and the parochial and diocesan schools. The Commission expressed an unanimous opinion that "no plan of "education, however wisely and unexceptionably contrived in "other respects, can be carried into effectual operation in "Ireland, unless it be explicitly avowed and clearly understood "as its leading principle that no attempt shall be made to "influence or disturb the peculiar religious tenets of any sect or "denomination of Christians."

The Kildare Place Society.

In 1811, while the first Commission of Inquiry into Irish Education was still sitting, the "Kildare Place Society" was founded for the furtherance of primary instruction in Ireland. It comprised both Roman Catholic and Protestant schools, and encouraged the reading of the Bible without note or comment as part of the daily curriculum. It received grants from Parliament, from the year 1814, at a rate which began at 6,980*l.* a year and

* Report of Commission on Primary Education (Ireland), vol. 3, Q. 9275.
† *Ibid.*, vol. 8, p. 85.
‡ *Ibid.*, vol. 8, p. 88.
§ *Ibid.*, vol. 8, p. 91.
‖ *Ibid.*, vol. 3, Q. 9270.
¶ *Ibid.*, vol. 3, Qs. 9715–7.

rose to 30,000*l.** These grants were withdrawn in 1833. The Lord Lieutenant's School Fund for educational purposes was established in 1819. Some of the grants from this fund were given for schools under Catholic patrons.

The Royal Commission, 1824–7.

In 1824 there was a second Commission of Inquiry into Irish Education, the labours of the Commissioners extending over three years. The unanimous finding of the Commission was that "In "a country where mutual divisions exist between different "classes of the people, schools should be established for the "purpose of giving to children of all religious persuasions such "useful instruction as they may severally be able and desirous "of receiving without having any ground to apprehend any "interference with their respective religious principles." They were, therefore, "in favour of the expediency of devising a system "of mutual education from which suspicion should, if possible, be "banished and the causes of distrust and jealousy should be "effectually removed, and under which the children may imbibe "similar ideas and form congenial habits tending to diminish, not "to increase, that distinction of feeling now but too prevalent."

Report of Select Committee of the House of Commons 'on Education in Ireland Reports,' 1828.

In 1828 a Select Committee of the House of Commons, appointed to consider the reports on education in Ireland, issued recommendations which had a strong influence on the subsequent educational history of the country. The Committee pointed out that Parliament had made liberal grants for education in Ireland—the Charter schools, for example, having received 1,105,869*l.*; the Foundling Hospital 820,005*l.*; and the Kildare Place Society 170,508*l.* In view of this large expenditure, "and the extreme discretion required in adopting a new system "of united education," they resolved that "it is indispensably "necessary to establish a fixed authority, acting under the "control of the Government and of the Legislature, bound by "strict and impartial rules, and subject to full responsibility for "the foundation, control, and management of such public "schools of general instruction as are supported, on the whole, "or in part, at the public expense."

The Committee recommend (a.) An Irish Board of Education.

Furthermore, the Committee thought that "Parliamentary aid "for the establishment and support of schools in Ireland should "be for the future restricted to the following objects:—

(b.) Certain financial regulations, requiring local contributions.

"'1. Granting aid to parishes, local subscribers, or charitable "societies for the erection of school-houses, such aid not "to exceed two-thirds of the sum required, and the "school-house and site to be conveyed to the Commis-"sioners; the managers of such school entering into an "engagement to conduct their establishment according "to the rules prescribed.

"'2. Gratuities to teachers of schools conducted on the prin-"ciples laid down by the Commissioners, not exceeding "5*l.*; 10*l.* at the least being provided in addition, locally, "as a permanent salary for such teacher.

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* State Education for the People, p. 57.

"'3. The publication of books for the *literary* instruction of "children to be furnished to schools adopting the rules "of the Commissioners at *half-price.*

"'4. School requisites and stationery and books for the "*separate religious* instruction of children to be fur- "nished at *prime cost.*

"'5. The establishment of a model school for the education of "teachers.

"'6. A system of inspection, either by the Commissioners or "by persons appointed by them.

"'7. All public aid to be dependent on private contributions, "and an adherence to the rules of the Commissioners.'"

The Select Committee recommended that the following objects should be provided for by local contribution, upon which all aid from Parliamentary funds was to be made strictly dependent:—

"1. A grant to the Commissioners of a site of a school-house, either of one acre of land or of land to the value of 40*s.* This to be required only when aid for building is applied for.

"2. Annual repairs of school-house and school furniture.

"3. Local contributions, for building schools, of one-third of the expense.

"4. Books for general instruction, stationery, school requisites at half-price.

"5. Books for the separate religious education of the scholars at prime cost.

"6. Permanent salary for the master not less than 10*l.*"

The Committee also sketched out with some detail the position, tenure, and duties of the proposed Board of Education.

(c.) **Measures to avoid the religious difficulty.**

With regard to the religious difficulty, the Committee stated that in its opinion it was "of the utmost importance to bring "together children of the different religious persuasions in "Ireland for the purpose of instructing them in the general "subjects of moral and literary knowledge, and providing faci- "lities for their religious instruction *separately* when differences "of creed render it impracticable for them to receive religious "instruction together."

They pointed out that their recommendations were founded on those laid down by the preceding Commissions of Inquiry, and emphatically stated that it had been their object "to discover a "mode in which the combined education of Protestant and "Catholic may be carried on, resting upon religious instruction "but free from the suspicion of proselytism." "Your Com- "mittee," they urged in conclusion, "have endeavoured to "avoid any violation of the liberty of conscience, or any "demands or sacrifices inconsistent with the religious faith of "any denomination of Christians. They propose leaving to the "clergy of each persuasion the duty and the privilege of giving "religious instruction to those who are committed to their care. "This plan cannot be objected to as disconnecting religion from "morality and learning; on the contrary, it binds them together

" indissolubly, and appears to unite them in a manner suitable to " the principles of sound policy, good faith, and Christian charity."

The report of this Select Committee contains in germ the future system of elementary education in Ireland.* It should be noted in passing that the Committee reported in the year of the repeal of the Test and Corporation Acts and during the long discussions which led to the removal of Roman Catholic disabilities in 1829.

Decline of the Kildare Place Society.

In the meantime the Kildare Place Society, which had been fairly successful at first, met with great difficulties through its requirement of Scripture reading for all pupils. The Roman Catholics opposed it on the ground of principle, the teachers were denounced, the number of pupils declined†, and the accusation of proselytism is stated to have finally led to the breaking up of its system of education.‡

Earl Grey's Government institute a Board of Commissioners for Education in Ireland.

In the autumn of 1831, in the midst of the excitement of the reform struggle and the year of the second Reform Bill, Earl Grey's Government resolved to introduce a new plan for the education of the poor in Ireland. The announcement was first made on September 9 ; and in the following month (October 20) Mr. Stanley, Chief Secretary for Ireland, addressed a letter to the Marquess of Anglesey, the Lord Lieutenant, as to the composition of the proposed new Board. In October§ Mr. Stanley wrote a letter to the Duke of Leinster in which he laid down the broad principles on which the educational system of Ireland was to be built up.

Mr. Stanley's letter to the Duke of Leinster.

The letter states that the Government were of opinion that no private society, deriving a part, however small, of their annual income from "private sources, and only made the channel of " the munificence of the Legislature without being subject to " any direct responsibility, could adequately and satisfactorily " accomplish the end proposed." And this impression had been strengthened by the failure of the Kildare Place Society, which had overlooked the fact "that the principles of the Roman " Catholic Church (to which in any system intended for general " diffusion throughout Ireland the bulk of the pupils must " necessarily belong) were totally at variance" with the enforcement of the reading of the Bible without note or comment in the schools. "The indiscriminate reading of the Holy Scriptures " without note or comment by children, must" (so ran the letter) "be peculiarly obnoxious to a Church which denies " even to adults the right of unaided private interpretation of " the sacred volume with respect to articles of religious belief."

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* The report is printed in vol. i., Part ii. of the report of Commission on Primary Education (Ireland), 1870.

† National Education for the People, p. 57, and *cf.* Mr. Stanley's letter to the Duke of Leinster, 1831.

‡ Royal Commission on Primary Education (Ireland), vol. iii., Q. 17,146.

§ Exact date uncertain ; *see* report of 1870 Commission, vol. i., p. 22.

Proposes a system of combined literary and separate religious instruction.

Mr. Stanley also drew attention to the proved impracticability of the suggestion of the Commissioners of 1824–5, viz., that two teachers, one Catholic and one Protestant, should be appointed in every school, and that a general selection of the Scriptures should be acquiesced in by both persuasions. The Government had therefore decided to institute a system of combined literary and separate religious instruction. The Board were "to exercise the most entire control over all books to be used "in the schools, whether in the combined literary or separate "religious instruction. . . . . but, although it was not "designed to exclude from the list of books for the combined "instruction such portions of sacred history or of religious and "moral teaching as might be approved of by the Board, it was "to be understood that this was by no means intended to "convey a perfect and sufficient religious education, or to supersede the necessity of separate religious instruction on the day "set aside for that purpose."*

One or two days a week to be set aside for separate religious instruction.

The letter instructed the Board "to require that the schools "be kept open for a certain number of hours on four or five "days of the week for moral and literary education only; and "that the remaining one or two days in the week be set apart "for giving, separately, such religious education to the children "as might be approved by the clergy of their respective "persuasions."

The Clergy of the different persuasions to have the right to give religious instruction in schools on other days before or after school hours.

The Board was also instructed "to permit and encourage the "clergy to give religious instruction to the children of their "respective persuasions either before or after the ordinary "school hours on the other days of the week."

Register of attendance at divine worship on Sundays.

Mr. Stanley's letter also instructed the Board to "require that "a register be kept in the schools, in which shall be entered the "attendance or non-attendance of each child on Divine worship "on Sundays." This regulation was omitted from all the codes of the Commissioners subsequent to the first.

Nature of applications for aid to be specially favoured.

As the united education of children of different faiths was one of the main objects of the Government, and as much was to depend upon the co-operation of the clergy, the Board were instructed to "look with peculiar favour on applications proceeding either "from—

"(*a*) the Protestant or Roman Catholic clergy of the parish;
"(*b*) one of the clergymen and a certain number of parishioners professing the opposite creed; or
"(*c*) parishioners of both denominations."

Whenever applications proceeded exclusively from Protestants or exclusively from Catholics, the Board were to make inquiry

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* Report of 1870 Commission, vol. i., p. 25. This sentence appears in the letter as preserved in the Irish Office, but not in that printed in the Board's report. The cause of the discrepancy is unknown.

Subscription of local funds required as condition for aid from public funds.

into the circumstances which led to the absence of any names of the persuasion which did not appear.

The Board were "invariably to require, as a condition not to "be departed from, that local funds should be raised, upon "which any aid from the public would be dependent."

Details of local aid required.

They were "to refuse all applications in which the following "objects were not locally provided for:—

"1st. A fund sufficient for the annual repairs of the school "house and furniture.

"2nd. A permanent salary for the master not less than "pounds.*

"3rd. A sum sufficient to purchase books and school requisites "at half price.

Vesting of school houses.

"4th. When aid is sought [*variant*, "required"] from the "Commissioners for building a schoolhouse, it is required "that at least one third of the estimated expense be "subscribed; a site for building, to be approved of by "the Commissioners, be granted for the purpose; and "that the schoolhouse, when finished, be vested in "trustees to be also approved of by them [*variant*, "'the schoolhouse when finished to be vested in them, "'*i.e.*, the Commissioners.']"

It was also stated to be "the intention of the Government "that the Board should exercise a complete control over the "various schools which may be erected under its auspices, or "which, having been already established, may hereafter place "themselves under its management and submit to its "regulations."

Other duties of the Board.

The Board was also "entrusted with the absolute control over "the funds which may be annually voted by Parliament, which "they shall apply to the following purposes:—

1st. Granting aid for the erection of schools, subject to the conditions herein-before specified.

2nd. Paying Inspectors for visiting and reporting upon schools.

3rd. Gratuities to teachers of schools conducted under the rules laid down not exceeding pounds each.*

4th. Establishing and maintaining a model school in Dublin and training teachers for country schools.

5th. Editing and printing such books of moral and literary education as may be approved of for the use of the schools, and supplying them and school necessaries at not lower than half price.

6th. Defraying all necessary contingent expenses of the Board.†

Reciprocal influence of Irish and English systems of Elementary Education on one another.

So great at different times has been the influence of English experience on Irish, and of Irish experience on English, educational policy,‡ that it is worth notice how great an effect the

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* The amount was left blank in the letter.

† This last object is omitted in the copy of Mr. Stanley's letter printed in the Board's Reports.

‡ For illustrations, *see* summary table of comparative dates.

establishment of the Irish National Board of Education had on English public opinion. The action of the State in Ireland was quickly regarded as a precedent for the granting of money from public funds in aid of English education. In 1833, two years after the establishment of the Irish Board, Parliament made its first grant in aid of elementary education in England, 20,000*l.* being voted for this purpose and entrusted to the administration of the National Society and the British and Foreign School Society. It is curious that the Government, which in 1831 had declared with reference to Ireland "that no private society deriving a part "however small, of their annual income from private sources, "and only made the channel of the munificence of the Legisla- "ture, without being subject to any direct responsibility, could "adequately and satisfactorily accomplish the end proposed,"* should, in 1833, have adopted, in regard to English education, the very policy which it had previously condemned. It may be conjectured that, while they regarded the diminution of acute differences of religious opinions as of primary importance in Ireland, they were in a position to form, as far as England was concerned, a more exact estimate of the hold which private initiative possessed on public opinion. Again, eight years after the establishment of the Irish National Board of Education, Lord Melbourne's Government in 1839 established the Committee of Council on Education, the work of which was the germ of the present Education Department for England and Wales, as well as of the Scotch Education Department.

To give a further illustration of the effect of Irish experience on English educational enactments, it may be pointed out that the famous Minutes of Council, published in August and December 1846, when Sir J. K. Shuttleworth was secretary (Minutes which laid the foundations of the English system as it remained till the time of Mr. Lowe), reproduce many of the features of the Irish arrangements, especially in regard to building grants and contributions in aid of the salaries of teachers. At a later stage in the educational history of the two countries the influence of England reacted on the Irish system, and produced great modifications in one of its essential points, but Sir J. K. Shuttleworth himself admitted, before the Duke of Newcastle's Commission, that the Minutes of 1846 were connected with the abandonment of the idea of the "common school" and "the "adoption, as the only practicable mode of procedure in the "main, of the denominational system."† It is true that the long English controversy on the subject of religious education had been the chief cause of this fundamental change of policy, but there can be little doubt that the exhibition of public feeling in Ireland on the same subject had also done much to strengthen a conviction maturely but reluctantly formed.

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* Mr. Stanley's letter, 1831, p. 1.

† Duke of Newcastle's Commission, vol. vi., Q. 2345.

Constitution of the Irish National Board.

To return to the work of the newly created Board of National Education. It was speedily constituted, and, of its members, three were of the Established Church, two of the Roman Catholic Church, one was a Presbyterian of the Synod of Ulster, and one a Unitarian of the Synod of Munster. At first all the Commissioners were unpaid, but, with the growth of business, this arrangement proved unsatisfactory, and Mr. Carlile, the Presbyterian member, became Resident Commissioner at a salary.*

Its objects and policy.

In order to form a fair judgment of the work of the Irish Board, two points must be emphasized. In the first place, "the "Irish educational system is the direct creation of the State."† In the second place, in establishing that system the Government had to keep two different problems in view—the educational and the political. From this it follows that the Irish system must be considered not simply from an educational point of view, but in the light of the social difficulties with which the administration had to contend. Things which might have been educationally desirable were politically impossible. Other things, which may have been politically expedient, were educationally unwise.

The system of the National Board, as it gradually took shape,‡ presents four salient features,—

(*a*) its attempted solution of the religious difficulty;
(*b*) its arrangements for paying part of the teachers' salaries;
(*c*) its provision of text-books;
(*d*) its establishment of a training college and of model schools.

The problem was how to institute an educational system which might assuage the bitterness of religious animosity, encourage friendly intercourse between the children of different faiths, and so, while producing a larger measure of social peace, lay, by means of sound instruction, the foundations of greater national prosperity. Nor was this the full difficulty of the situation. The Commissioners had to seek to secure these advantages in a country where the teachers were wretchedly paid, and themselves imperfectly trained and educated, where schoolhouses were rare and often ruinous, where the standard of educational efficiency was low, and where the school books in use were scanty and inappropriate. To the solution of this complex and thorny problem the Commissioners addressed themselves with patience and energy.

(a.) The religious difficulty.

The First Report of the Commissioners§ shows how they attempted to meet the difficulties enumerated above:

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* Lord Powis' Commission, vol. i., pp. 21, 26.

† Lord Powis' Commission, vol. ii. Report of Mr. D. C. Richmond, Assistant Commissioner, p. 239 (a very interesting report).

‡ An "Explanatory Document" of the Board, 1832, and authorised by Mr. Stanley, became a sort of gloss on the original letter. (*See* Lord Powis' Commission, vol. i., pp. 27, 28.)

§ 1834. Printed in "Report of the Commissioners of National Education in "Ireland from 1834–42." Dublin, 1844.

(*a.*) *The Religious Difficulty.*—The Commissioners laid down the following regulations:—

(1.) The ordinary school business, during which all the children, of whatever denomination they be, are required to attend, and which is expected to embrace a competent number of hours in each day, is to consist exclusively of instruction in those branches of knowledge which belong to literary and moral education. Such extracts from the Scriptures as are prepared under the sanction of the Board may be used, and are earnestly recommended by the Board to be used during the hours allotted to the ordinary school instruction.

(2.) One day in each week (independently of Sunday) is to be set apart for religious instruction of the children, on which day such pastors, or other persons as are approved of by the parents or guardians of the children, shall have access to them for that purpose, whether those pastors have signed the original application or not.

(3.) The managers of schools are also expected, should the parents of any of the children desire it, to afford convenient opportunity and facility for the same purpose either before or after the ordinary school business (as the managers may determine) on the other days of the week

(4.) Any arrangement of this description that may be made is to be publicly notified in the schools, in order that those children, and those only, may be present at the religious instruction, whose parents or guardians approve of their being so.

(5.) The reading of the Scriptures, either in the Authorised or the Douay Version, is regarded as a religious exercise, and, as such, to be confined to those hours which are set apart for religious instruction. The same regulation is also to be observed respecting prayer.

(6.) A register is to be kept in each school recording the daily attendance of the children, and the average attendance in each week and each quarter according to a form to be furnished by the Board.

In Mr. Stanley's original letter the Commissioners had been required to insist on a register being kept in the schools, in which was "to be entered the attendance or non-attendance "of each child on Divine Worship on Sundays." But in April, 1832, Mr. Stanley authorised the Commissioners to dispense with this requirement, which, as a matter of fact, had never been enforced.* The regulation as to setting apart one day a week for religious instruction was much objected to. "Most," said Mr. Carlile in 1834, "would rather not be bound "to it."† The reason why it was "regarded with indifference"

* Lord Powis' Commission, vol. i., p. 27.

† Before the Commons Committee, 1834; quoted in Lord Powis Commission Report, vol. i., p. 30.

was that, even at that early stage in the Board's work, we find "a sort of understanding that the schools are to belong to "one of the denominations—that it is to be the priest's school, "or the school of the clergyman of the Established Church of "England, or the school of the Protestant dissenting minister, and "that they are not to interfere with each other. And each "minister thus having his school in his own management, he is "satisfied with going and giving religious instruction on the "usual days of teaching, out of or in any school hours, and does "not care for having a day set apart for religious instruction. "But, were schools generally to be conducted *bonâ fide* by "committees consisting of all parties, it is probable that one "day in the week secured for religious instruction might become "more important than it now in general is."*

"There seems no room to doubt," said Lord Powis' Commission, "that the intention of the Government and Legislature "was to exclude the Bible during the hours or days of com-"bined instruction."† This was because the Roman Catholics cannot conscientiously submit to the Holy Scriptures being used in schools without note or comment. Such an arrangement of "indiscriminate" Bible reading would be "peculiarly ob-"noxious to the Roman Catholic Church," and "such a system "could not become one of national education."‡ On the other hand, the Protestants were tenacious of the privilege of having the Bible read in the schools, and an arrangement was at one time made by which the Scriptures were allowed to be read "at any "hour, fixed by the conductors of the school, and announced, so "that no children, whose parents do not approve of their being "present at that exercise, shall be present."§ Some school managers, it is said, availed themselves of this permission without being "very strict in observing the distinction of "hours."‖ But in the end the Bible was excluded from the National Schools during the hours of combined instruction, while its use was encouraged during the first or last of the school hours, or both of them.¶ That the controversy could be composed on these terms is another indication how separate and denominational the schools of the National Board had really become. The rule of the Government was enforced, but the mixture of denominations, which the rule had been designed to secure, was far from being generally attained.

A further step in the matter of religious education was the preparation of "Scripture extracts." The Commissioners did not wish "to carry on any system for the education of the nation which did not comprise a respectable and satisfactory "portion of Scripture knowledge."** They desired such knowledge as an ethical basis of education, and, had they failed to

* Before the Commons Committee, 1834; quoted in Lord Powis' Commission Report, vol. i., p. 30.

† *Ibid.*, p. 33. ‡ *Ibid.*, p. 33.

§ *Ibid.*, p. 34. This libertywas given entirely by the Resident Commissioner, Mr. Carlile, on his own responsibility; and was withdrawn by a Minute of the Board in September 1832. *Ibid.*, p. 37.

‖ *Ibid.*, p. 36. ¶ *Ibid.*, p. 38. ** *Ibid.*, p. 42.

take some such action, it is conceivable that the charge of introducing a Godless form of instruction might have been brought against them more frequently and generally than was actually the case.

The difficulties, however, were great, as the scheme of Scripture extracts practically involved a new translation from the original texts, the Roman Catholics objecting to the use of the Authorised, the Protestants to that of the Douay, Version. As a matter of fact, the translation was made by a comparison of the Douay and Authorised Versions with the original, Mr. Carlile, or some person acting under his authority, being employed as translator, and all the work so done being examined in proof by every member of the Board.* Mr. Carlile thus states the aim which the Commissioners, in preparing the Scripture extracts, had in view. "The plan pursued in this compilation has been "to take the historical narrative of Scripture as the foundation "and to attach to it other portions of Scripture relating to "the narrative, either from the Old or New Testament. Thus, "after the narrative of the Creation, extracts from the Book of "Psalms referring to the Creation have been introduced."† Volumes of Scripture extracts "containing the chief part of "the early historical books of the Old Testament, the Gospel of "Luke, and the Book of Acts" were issued by the Board; these books were recommended by the Commissioners to be read in the schools during the hours devoted to combined literary instruction. Mr. Carlile, with the sanction of the Board, made a new translation of the Ten Commandments for the use of National Schools. They were printed as an extract from the Book of Exodus, retaining the division into verses as in the Scripture, and were thus divided, not into 10, but into 17 parts. This was done in view of the difference of opinion between the Roman Catholic and Protestant Churches in respect of the proper division of the Commandments.

It would appear that the Scripture extracts, though approved by the Roman Catholic members of the Board, were chiefly used in the Protestant schools,‡ and the contents, therefore, though of a neutral character, would naturally, without provoking offence, tend to become assimilated rather to the requirements of Protestant than to those of Catholic teachers. The Unitarian member of the Board stated to the House of Lords Committee in 1854 that "it was a fundamental principle of the system "that, so far as it could be accomplished, a religious education "was to form part of it, subject to objections from any par-"ticular class or sect of Christians."§ To this view, and to the policy implicated in it, one, and that a growing, section of the Roman Catholic Church, entertained a profound objection.

* Quoted in Lord Powis' Commission, vol. i., p. 40.

† *Ibid.*, p. 40.

‡ *Cf.* Lord Powis' Commission, vol. i., p. 71 (evidence of Mr. Colquhoun quoted).

§ *Ibid.*, p. 39.

At first their objections were not so strongly urged as was afterwards the case, but they are pointedly stated in a resolution of the congregation De Propaganda Fide passed January 11, 1846. This resolution declares that non-sectarian education in religious instruction is dangerous to youth. "Tutius multo esse "ut literarum tantummodo humanarum magisterium fiat in "scholis promiscuis, quam ut fundamentales, ut aiunt, et "communes religionis Christianæ articuli restricte tradantur, "reservata singulis sectis peculiari seorsum eruditione. Ita "enim cum pueris agere periculosum valde videtur."* And, on the other hand, it is possible that some of the Protestant members of the Board were of opinion that the general use of the scriptural extracts in mixed schools would affect the religious convictions of the Roman Catholic children. Thus Archbishop Whately, one of the original and naturally one of the most influential members of the Board, is reported to have written in his diary, "The education supplied by the National Board is "gradually undermining the vast fabric of the Irish Roman "Catholic Church. . . . . If we give up mixed education, "as carried out in the system of the National Education Board, "we give up the only hope of weaning the Irish from Popery. "But I cannot venture openly to express this opinion."†

"The problem was," wrote Dr. Dunckley in 1889, "how to "give common instruction to children belonging to different "creeds and hostile churches. The solution was to let them "mix together in the same classes for secular instruction, and be "separated according to their creeds for religious instruction, and "let the latter be confined to one small portion of the day. It "seemed a fair arrangement and was regarded as a master-"piece of statesmanship . . . But religious zeal thwarted the "benevolent intention of the Legislature. The system had "every virtue except that of being practicable."‡

The system *apparently* succeeded, while really departing from the intention of its founders, by becoming virtually denominational. Sir Patrick Keenan in 1888 said that practically the arrangements in force in Irish elementary schools were what would be called in England strongly denominational arrangements.§

The working of the system was thus criticised by Mr. Butt in 1865.‖ "In this very city, Dublin, anyone can see with his "own eyes an instance of the wisdom of the manner in which

* Quoted in Lord Powis' Commission, vol. i., p. 39.

† Quoted in Archbishop Walsh's *Statement of the Chief Grievances of Irish Catholics in the matter of Education, Elementary, Intermediate, and University.* (Dublin; Brown & Nolan, 1890), p. 10.

In 1887 the Scripture extracts were "not used in five schools in all Ireland," "the Protestants wanting the whole Bible and the Roman Catholic special dogmatic "instruction of their own church."—Sir P. Keenan. Royal Commission on Elementary Education, 1888, vol. iii., Q. 53,426.

‡ In *British Weekly*, Sept. 6, 1889; quoted by Archbishop Walsh *supra*.

§ Royal Commission on Elementary Education, 1888, vol. iii., Q. 53,555.

‖ Liberty of Teaching Vindicated, Dublin, 1865, p. 38. Quoted by Archbishop Walsh *ut supra*.

"the question is dealt with. Walking down King's Inn Street "the passenger may see divided by a narrow lane, two separate "buildings, both bearing the inscription of National School. "On one side of the lane is a school under the management of "the ladies of a convent; on the other is the school of a "Presbyterian church. Not a single Protestant child attends "the one; not a single Roman Catholic child the other. Yet in "both religious instruction is fettered and controlled.

"If the Presbyterian teacher obeys the rules, he dare not "allude to religion in his ordinary instruction. If the sound "of the convent bell were to induce any unfortunate pupil of "the nuns to make the sign of the cross, or to respect the "invocations which her parents tell her are sacred, all the "machinery of inspectors and head inspectors and official in- "vestigation would be set in motion to discover and punish the "awful infraction of the rule of mixed education. In the narrow "compass of that lane, about four yards wide, any observer can "estimate the reality of the system of united education and the "deep practical wisdom of its rules."

(*b.*) *Teachers' Salaries.*—It is now necessary to turn to the second problem which lay before the Commissioners: how to improve Irish elementary education by making grants in aid of the teachers' salaries.

"Mr. Stanley, in his letter establishing the Board," said Sir P. Keenan to the Royal Commission on Elementary Education in 1888,* "laid it down that no school was to be taken into "connexion that was not endowed by the locality with funds "sufficient for its maintenance. Owing, however, to the diffi- "culty, and in most cases the impossibility, of satisfying this "requirement, it proved to be a dead letter and was never "enforced. Had any attempt been made to enforce it, the "system would have been paralysed at its very outset."† In later years the Commissioners adopted a stricter rule, and required a minimum sum of 12*l.* from local sources towards augmentation of teachers' salaries, besides a contribution of one-third of the cost of buildings in the case of new schools. In 1849 the severe privations of the teachers moved the Commissioners to compassion, and the scale of teachers' salaries was increased, the Commissioners defending themselves against complaints of their non-observance of Mr. Stanley's stipulation by reference to the condition of the country.‡ Mr. D. C. Richmond, indeed, one of the Assistant Commissioners of Lord Powis' inquiry, thought that more might have been done by the parents to contribute towards the cost of the teachers' stipends. "I believe," he wrote, that unwillingness has far more to do with "the matter than inability. . . . The parents recognise that the

* Vol. iii., Q. 53,144.

† See on this point very important quotations in the Report of Lord Powis' Commission, vol. i., p. 46 and p. 115.

‡ Lord Powis' Commission, vol. i., p. 115.

"teacher is under an obligation to teach their children, but they "do not feel that they are under any corresponding obligation "to remunerate him for what he does."* As the State did it for them, they did not exert themselves to do it for themselves. At the same time it must be remembered that nothing short of liberal subsidies to teachers would ever have raised primary education in Ireland to a sufficient level of excellence. But the rapid development of State aid to, or rather State payment of, salaries was not part of the original conception of the English Government.† It grew up in a way by accident, an accident which was possibly unavoidable, but certainly unforeseen. It was not the intention of Mr. Stanley, if we may judge from his letter, that the Irish Board should gradually undertake to bear so large a part in the payment of the teachers' stipends. How steadily the scale of payment mounted up is shown by the following table.‡

The salaries of men teachers in the first division of the first class rose from 20*l.* in 1839 to 52*l.* in 1860; those of women teachers in the same category and during the same years from 15*l.* to 42*l.* In the lowest or second division of the third class, the salaries of men rose within the same period from 12*l.* to 18*l.*, and of women from 8*l.* to 16*l.*§ The net effects of subsequent increases are shown in Mr. Redington's memorandum.

(*c.*) *Provision of Text Books.*—The provision of text books was an urgent matter which called for the early consideration of the Irish Board. The school books in Irish schools were deplorably scarce and unsuitable. In 1824, the Royal Commissioners printed a list of books used in the schools situated in Donegal, Kildare, Galway, and Kerry. Besides religious works, the names of over 300 "works of entertainment" are quoted. They include Tristram Shandy, Dr. Faustus and the Devil, Gil Blas, Female Adventurers, the Wonderful Advantages of Venturing in the Lottery, Peregrine Pickle, The Garden of Love, The Pleasant Art of Money Catching, Women as They Are, The Feats of Astrologers, Rousseau's Letters, Joseph Andrews, and Nocturnal Revels. . . . "Every "child brought to school the book furnished by the domestic "library, and in his turn read from it to the teacher. One "might read the Bible, another the adventures of a highway-"man, the third a loose romance."‖

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* Lord Powis' Commission Report, vol. 2, p. 197.

† Mr. James Stuart Laurie, one of the Assistant Commissioners of Lord Powis' Commission in 1870, says that "unfailing faith in the capacity of the Imperial treasury has quickly penetrated," vol. ii., p. 293.

‡ "In 1887 the payments of teachers were nearly quadruple what they were some 40 or 50 years before." Sir P. Keenan. Royal Commission on Elementary Education, 1888, Q. 53,199.

§ *See* various Reports of National Commissioners, and for mention of successive increases, *see* Lord Powis' Commission, vol. i., pp. 98, 108, 115, 118, 127, 154, 157 (supplemental good service salaries, 1858), 159, 176; *cf.* also vol. i., p. 372, 377 (recommendation that Irish National teachers should be paid more liberally), 378. For appointment and dismissal, *see* p. 388.

‖ Lord Powis' Commission, vol. i., p. 119.

To remedy this evil, the Kildare Place Society and the Catholic Book Society had published many books. But the National Board, by publishing a large selection of works, and issuing them at a low price, rendered far greater service to the country. The books led to uniformity in instruction, and made it possible to institute class teaching. "They were graduated "to suit the growing capacities of children; they were dis- "tributed gratis or sold cheaply; they were generally accepted "as containing nothing inimical to Christian faith or mo- "rality, and they accomplished beneficial results of national "importance."*

The use of the books so supplied was not compulsory† but the advantage of using them was so material both to the pockets of the managers and the efficiency of the schools that they enjoyed a very extensive circulation. In 1888, Sir P. Keenan, admitted that "it would be desirable to arrive at the day when teachers "and managers would be able to select any book, by whom- "soever published, that had nothing objectionable about it, and "from a pedagogic view was not bad as a school book, as freely "as they now take ours (those of the Board)."‡ But this side of the operations of the Board is still extensive, though Archbishop Walsh complains that it has a somewhat deadening and limiting effect on the choice of school literature.§

(*d.*) *Professional Training of Teachers.*—The remaining problem before the Commissioners at the outset of their work was the establishment of a system of training for teachers in elementary schools. Professional preparation was at a low ebb, and a normal school was sorely needed. The foundation of the Irish system of training was laid by the establishment of model schools, and the institution of a Training College in Merrion Street, Dublin, in 1833; these were transferred to new premises in Marlborough Street, Dublin, in 1835. The religious education of teachers under training was at first confined to voluntary and irregular attendance upon instruction afforded gratuitously to school children by the parochial clergy,‖ and it appears that the college in Marlborough Street was on an undenominational basis. This experiment was, possibly, connected with Lord Melbourne's scheme (1839) for establishing a training college in England, under the direct management of the State, on a system of separate religious instruction for students of different religious denominations.¶ In both countries the scheme was bitterly assailed and deeply distrusted by many of the religious bodies, but whereas in England the plan was abortive, and had to be abandoned in deference to public feeling,

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* Lord Powis' Commission, vol. i., p. 119.
† Royal Commission on Elementary Education, vol. iii., Q. 53,431.
‡ *Ibid.*, Q. 53,435.
§ Archbishop Walsh *ut supra*.
‖ Lord Powis' Commission, vol. i., p. 83.
¶ *See* Sir J. Kay Shuttleworth's "The School in its Relations to the State, the Church, and the Congregation," 1847.

in Ireland the college was actually founded, and denominational training colleges were not recognised by the Board until 1883.

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It is necessary now to review the attitude of the several religious communions in Ireland towards the policy of the Irish Board at the time of its institution and at subsequent dates. The Government, in introducing the system of elementary education, had to attempt to win the sympathy and support of three important denominations—the Established Church, the Presbyterian Synod, and the Roman Catholics,* and as the views of each denomination differed with respect to the policy of the new National Board, the most convenient course will be to refer to them in succession.

) Esta- shed urch.

(*a.*) The Established Church at first opposed the Board to a large extent.† Archbishop Whately's influence did much to conciliate some, but other dignitaries violently resented the Board's work. The Grand Orange Lodge of Tyrone unanimously reprobated it.‡ In one case, the inscription "National School," was hacked down with hatchets.§ In another, a mob of 5,000 persons defaced the National School by painting P. for Popery on the doors and windows.‖ The established clergy who favoured the Board were designated "New Board Ministers," and "found "themselves in a very unpleasant situation."¶

A large number of the clergy of the Church of Ireland showed their sincerity by maintaining their own schools independently of the Board.** In 1839 the Church Education Society was founded "with the object of making scriptural instruction the funda- "mental principle of Christian Education" in new schools established on a purely denominational system."†† The Protestant party in Ireland were opposed to the exclusion of the Scriptures, and condemned the Scripture extracts, regarding the Board as "establishing Popery and promoting infidelity."‡‡ But the financial pressure was too great, and in 1859 the then Primate, long an earnest opponent of the Board, had to give way to the policy of co-operation,§§ though the Church Education Society and its schools still exist as separate organisations at the present day.

.) Presby- rians.

(*b*) The Presbyterian Synod on January 11, 1832, passed strong resolutions in condemnation of the Board's system. They thought that "the Bible unabridged and unmutilated should "form the basis of National Education, as we learn from Deut. "vi. 6; Psal. cxix. 9; John xvii. 17; 2 Tim. iii. 14, 15, 16,"‖‖

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* The Wesleyans are a small body in Ireland. They opposed the Board entirely. Royal Commission on Elementary Education, 1888, vol. iii. Q. 53,505.

† Royal Commission on Elementary Education, 1888, vol. iii. Q. 53,504.

‡ Lord Powis' Commission, vol. i., p. 66.

§ *Ibid.*, p. 66.

¶ Lord Powis' Commission, vol. i., p. 65.

‖ *Ibid.*, p. 65.

** *Ibid.*, p. 67.

†† *Ibid.*, vol. viii., p. 30.

‡‡ *Ibid.*, p. 69.

§§ *Cf.* Archbishop Walsh *ut supra.*

‖‖ Resolutions of the Synod, 4; printed in Lord Powis' Commission. Report, vol. i., p. 47.

and consequently could "never accede" to the arrangements proposed by the Board. Long and delicate negotiations followed between the Synod and the Government, through the good offices of Mr. Carlile, himself a Presbyterian.* Finally, in 1839–40, concession and compromise prevailed over the opposition of the Synod, and the "junction" took place between the Presbyterians and the Board.† The settlement was effected on nine points, chiefly by means of a development of the principle of non-vested schools, and by concessions which "converted the "National system, so far as concerned the numerous class of "non-vested schools, into a quasi-denominational system."‡

(c.) Roman Catholics.

(c.) The Roman Catholic Church was divided in opinion. Two of the Commissioners were Roman Catholics, and many of their communion agreed with them in accepting the proposals of the Board. In general, the Roman Catholics "received the new "system willingly,"§ Dr. Crolly, Roman Catholic Bishop of Down and Connor, and afterwards Archbishop of Armagh leading this movement of opinion. But underneath the surface, there were strong objections felt on the part of many Roman Catholics. The Christian Brothers, influenced by leaders whom they respected, at first availed themselves of the Board's arrangements. But subsequently "finding that the conditions "and restrictions imposed on them would ultimately prove fatal "to the religious object of their institute, a special meeting of the "Brothers was held in 1836, when it was resolved, after mature "deliberation, to withdraw their schools from connexion with the Board."‖ Their action was highly commended by many Roman Catholics. It endorsed the previous opinion of Dr. MacHale of Maynooth, afterwards Roman Catholic Archbishop of Tuam, who said, "Ireland was a Catholic country, and as such the "vast bulk of her people were entitled to have a system of "education based upon Catholic principles. . . . Catholic "and Protestant children ought to be instructed separately in the "tenets of their respective creeds."¶ In 1850, the death of Dr. Crolly removed the chief Roman Catholic upholder of the Board's policy. At the Synod of Thurles in that year, the Roman Catholic hierarchy denounced the system of the Board.** In 1852 Dr. Cullen, a strong opponent of the Board's system, became Archbishop of Dublin. In 1853 came the attack on Archbishop Whately's book. In the meantime Sir R. Peel's

* Resolutions of the Synod, 4; printed in Lord Powis' Commission, Report, vol. i., pp. 48, 49.

Ibid., vol. i., p. 90.

‡ Royal Commission on Elementary Education, 1888. Q. 53,502, and *cf. State Education for the People*, p. 59. Lord Powis' Commission, Report vol. i., p. 95; and Archdeacon Stopford stated before the Lord's Committee in 1854, "practically "they established a system of separate schools, under the name of a system of "united education." *Ibid.*, p. 95, Q. 4589.

§ Lord Powis' Commission, vol. i., p. 70.

‖ *Ibid.*, vol. i., p. 32. The actual resolution of the Christian Brothers, there quoted, is very significant. *Cf.* also *Ibid.*, vol. i., p. 100, for further detail.

¶ Quoted in Archbishop Walsh's book, *ut supra*.

** *Ibid.*, vol. i., pp. 125–6.

scheme (in 1845) for "mixed" University Education had roused the passionate opposition of many Roman Catholics. In 1847, the Pope condemned Sir R. Peel's proposals, repeating his condemnation in the following year. In 1854 (Queen's University having been founded in 1850) the Catholic University was canonically instituted. All this agitation, rousing discussion on fundamental questions, excited the feeling against the Board's system to a still higher point. From 1854 to 1860, many Roman Catholic dignitaries continued their attack on the principles applied by the Board to elementary education. In 1860, when a new charter was granted to the Board, the representation of Roman Catholic members on the National Board was made equal to that of the Protestants. Finally, in 1867, Lord Powis' Commission was appointed to consider this and other difficulties attaching to the system of the Board, and negotiations began between the Roman Catholic Bishops and the Government for the foundation of a Catholic University. In 1873 the Government Bill for the abolition of Queen's University and the establishment of one University of Dublin to include Trinity College and other colleges was successfully opposed by the Roman Catholics on the ground that they would suffer from inequality of endowment. In the same year Mr. Fawcett's Act for the abolition of tests in Trinity College, Dublin, renewed the controversy as to fundamental principles, and in spite of the university legislation of 1880, by which the Royal University of Ireland was founded, a strong party of Roman Catholics still maintain an attitude of opposition to the policy of the Board. The Christian Brothers' schools still remain outside its operations. Perhaps the chief exponent of Roman Catholic objections to the principles on which Irish Elementary Education is supported by the State is Archbishop Walsh, from whose book on "The "Chief Grievances of Irish Roman Catholics in the Matter of "Education, Primary, Intermediate, and University" quotations have already been made in the course of this memorandum. Archbishop Walsh objects to the Board's policy because "the "one necessary result of bringing Catholic and Protestant "children together in the same primary school to receive "instruction in common in all literary and scientific subjects is "to shut out from the ordinary work of the school every element "of distinctive religious teaching or influence."* He then describes the present arrangements in the following terms:†

"In every national school a certain time each day is available "for religious instruction. The hour or half hour selected for "this purpose in each school must be indicated upon a time-"table which is hung up in the schoolroom. The teacher is "furnished with two cards, one of which is printed in large "letters 'Secular Instruction' and on the other 'Religious In-"struction." One or other of these cards is to be hung up in a

* Archbishop Walsh, *ut supra*, p. 6. It may be noted, however, that Archbishop Walsh has now a seat on the National Board.

† *Ibid.*, p. 7.

" prominent place in the school according as the secular or the " religious instruction is in progress. While the religious " instruction card is displayed, religious instruction may be " given. The children may perform suitable practice of piety, " such as making the sign of the cross; and religious emblems, " such as the figure of the Crucifixion or the statue of our " Blessed Lady may be displayed to view. But outside the time " thus definitely assigned to religious instruction, the card " inscribed 'Secular Instruction' must be displayed, and while " it hangs on the wall—*i.e.* for the chief portion of the working " hours of the day—even though the school be exclusively " Catholic as regards attendance, all reference to the Catholic " religion, to its practices of piety, or to its emblems of devotion " is absolutely forbidden."

Later history of Irish elementary education.

One result of Lord Powis' Commission, which issued its report in 1870, was to introduce into Irish primary schools some features of the system of payment by results, which had been established in the English elementary schools by Mr. Lowe's Revised Code of 1861. The details of the negotiations which led to this important change were given by Sir P. Keenan to the Royal Commission on Elementary Education in 1887.* The system of payment by results was introduced as *supplemental* to the system of payment of teachers by class salaries. The present Irish system is thus a hybrid between the English system as it was from 1846 to 1861, and the English system as it became after Mr. Lowe's great changes in the latter year.

The new method of partial payment by results was fully introduced by the Board in 1872. In 1875 a Loans Act was passed to enable managers to provide residences for teachers, and an Act authorising boards of guardians to contribute out of rates to results fees. In 1879 the Loans Act was amended. A Pensions Act, in the same year appropriated 1,300,000*l.* of the surplus of the Irish Church Fund for the purpose of providing pensions for teachers. In 1883, denominational training colleges were first recognised by the Board. In 1885, a Bill for making a compulsory school rate did not come to a second reading.

In 1887 Sir P. Keenan gave to the Royal Commission on Elementary Education (England and Wales) an interesting table showing the progress which had been made through the beneficial labours of the Irish Board.

	Population.	No. of Schools.
1836–7	8 millions.	1300
1846–7	8¼ „	3637
1856–7	6 „	5245
1866–7	5⅓ „	6453
1876–7	5¼ „	7334
1886–7	under 5 „	8024†

* Report, vol. iii., Q. 53,199.

† Royal Commission on the Elementary Education Acts (England and Wales), vol. iii., Q. 53,137.

In 1889 the Treasury augmented its grant for building school houses, and increased recognition was given by the Board to industrial training in elementary schools. This may have been partly due to the interest excited by the investigations and reports of the Royal Commission on Technical Instruction 1881–4. In 1890 all the training colleges in connexion with the Board were put on a footing of perfect equality as regards State Grants, and the "credit" system of aid to Training Colleges (which still obtains in England) was abandoned.

In 1892 the Irish Education Act was passed, providing for the entire (or partial) abolition of pupils' fees, a Parliamentary school grant of 210,000*l.* per annum being given for the augmentation of teacher's salaries in lieu of the abolished school fees. The details of the Act, which was amended in 1893, together with its provisions for compulsory attendance in boroughs, towns, and townships, are set forth in the recent reports of the Board, and need not be recapitulated here.

M. E. SADLER.

British Ministries.	ish and Welsh rsity Education.	Irish University Education.	Notes.
1810-12. Mr. Perceval, Prime Minister.	18	1793. Roman Catholics admitted to Trinity College, Dublin, and to graduation, but not eligible for scholarships, &c.	
	18 Honour Examination established at xford.		
	18 versity College, London, founded.	1795. Maynooth College founded.	
1812-27. Lord Liverpool, Prime Minister.	18		
1827. Mr. Canning, followed by Lord Goderich, Prime Ministers.	18 g's College, London, founded.		1828. Repeal of Test and Corporation Acts.
1828-30. Duke of Wellington, Prime Minister.	18		1829. Relief of Roman Catholic Disabilities.
1830-34. Lord Grey, Prime Minister.	18 versity of Durham unded.		1832. Reform Bill carried, Act for Emancipation of Slaves.
	versity of London unded.	1834. Mr. Shell introduces Bill to admit Catholics to scholarships and fellowships at Trinity College, Dublin.	1833. Church Temporalities (Ireland) Act.
1834. Lord Melbourne and Sir R. Peel, Prime Ministers.	18		1835. Lord John Russell carried motion which involved appropriation to moral and religious purposes of the surplus revenue of the Irish Church.
	18		
1835-41. Lord Melbourne, Prime Minister.			
1841-46. Sir R. Peel, Prime Minister.	18	1845. Maynooth Act passed, giving permanent subsidy to the College. Sir R. Peel's scheme for "mixed" University education, *i.e.*, three non-sectarian colleges—Belfast, Cork, Galway. 100,000*l.* for buildings; 7,000*l.* each annual grant. If successful to be a Federal University.	1845. J. H. Newman joined Church of Rome.
	18		
1846-52. Lord J. Russell, Prime Minister (June).	18	O'Connell denounces scheme. Roman Catholic bishops divided.	1846. Potato famine in Ireland.
	en's College, London, founded.	1847. The Pope condemns Sir R. Peel's scheme.	
	ford College, London, founded.	1848. The Pope repeats condemnation.	
	Oxford and Cambridge University 18 ommissions.	1849. Belfast, Cork, and Galway Queen's Colleges opened.	
1852. Lord Derby, Prime Minister.	ns College, Manchester, founded.	1850. At Thurles Synod of Roman Catholic bishops condemn the above colleges. Decide to start a Catholic University in Dublin. (At this, J. H. Newman delivered his nine discourses—1852—on "Idea of a University."	
1852 (Dec.) to 1855 (Jan.). Lord Aberdeen, Prime Minister.	18		
1855 (Jan.) to 1858 (Feb.). Lord Palmerston, Prime Minister.	18	Queen's University founded; an Examining Board for the three Queen's Colleges.	
	Religious tests for .A. degree abolished Oxford and Cambridge.	1854. Catholic University canonically founded.	

British Ministries.	iate	English and Welsh University Education.	Irish University Education.
Feb.) to 1859 (June). Lord Derby, Prime Minister.			
June) to 1865 (Nov.). Lord Palmerston, Prime Minister.			
(Nov.) to 1866 (June). Lord Russell, Prime Minister.			1866. Government (Lord Russell's) prepare scheme to give Queen's University a supplemental charter, in order to admit Catholic University. [Legal decision adverse.]
(June) to 1868 (Feb.). Lord Derby, Prime Minister.	ge of blin, es-		1867. Negotiations between Roman Catholic Bishops and Government for Catholic University. Royal College of Science established in Dublin.
(Feb.) till 1868 (Dec.). Mr. Disraeli, Prime Minister.		1868. Non-collegiate students allowed to reside in Oxford. Cambridge University higher local examinations for women established.	1868. Lord Mayo's scheme for Catholic University [quickly withdrawn].
74. Mr. Gladstone, Prime Minister. 1869. Irish Church Act.		1869. Girton College established at Hitchin. Non-collegiate students allowed to reside at Cambridge.	1870. Declaration of Catholic Laity on University questions.
		1871. Tests abolished at Oxford and Cambridge. Newnham College, Cambridge, founded. Durham College of Science founded.	1873. Government Bill to abolish Queen's University, leaving one University of Dublin to include Trinity College, Dublin, and other colleges. University professorships to be created. [This proposition much suspected.] Catholics oppose because they would not have been on equality as regards endowments. [Bill rejected.]
		1872. Cambridge University Extension lectures begin. University College of Wales, Aberystwith, opened.	
80. Mr. Disraeli (created Earl of Beaconsfield in Aug. 1876), Prime Minister.		1874. Commissioners of Inquiry into Property and Income of Oxford and Cambridge report. — Yorkshire College founded.	Mr. Fawcett's Bill for abolition of tests in Trinity College, Dublin, carried.
		1875. Mason College, Birmingham, founded.	
		1876. University College, Bristol, founded. London Society for the extension of University teaching founded (Oxford, Cambridge, and London co-operating).	
		1877. Oxford University Extension lectures begin.	
	rmediate Act Board es- with re-	1878. University College, Aberystwyth, founded. Degrees of London University opened to women. Association for education of women established at Oxford. Teachers' Training Syndicate established at Cambridge.	
	nfessional admitted ation, in- chools of rothers.	1879. Somerville College, Oxford, founded. Lady Margaret Hall, Oxford, founded. Firth College, Sheffield, founded.	1879. O'Conor Don's Bill for Catholic University introduced.
(April) to 1885 (June). Mr. Gladstone, Prime Minister.		1880. Victoria University founded. University College, Nottingham, founded.	1880. Royal University of Ireland founded on London University lines, with some prizes, scholarships, and fellowships. The scheme did not recognise the Catholic University.
		1881. University College, Liverpool, founded. Cambridge University Tripos examinations formally opened to women.	

British Ministries.	te	English and Welsh University Education.	Irish University Education.
		1882. Treasury grant first given to University College, Aberystwyth.	1882. New scheme of organization for associated Colleges of the Catholic University of Ireland.
		1883. University College, Cardiff, founded; receives grant.	
1885 (June) to 1886 (Feb.). Lord Salisbury, Prime Minister.		1884. University College, Bangor, founded; receives grant. Various Oxford University honour examinations opened to women.	
1886 (Feb.) to 1886 (July). Mr. Gladstone, Prime Minister.			
1886 (July) to 1892 (Aug.). Lord Salisbury, Prime Minister.		1886. St. Hugh's Hall, Oxford, opened. Mansfield College moved to Oxford.	
		1887. Holloway College opened.	
		1889. First Treasury grant to University colleges, in England.	
	(Customs and Excise) takes a intermediate Ireland, in augments its fees.	1890. Day training colleges at Universities and University colleges recognised by Education Department.	
1892 (Aug.) to 1894 (March). Mr. Gladstone, Prime Minister.		1892–94. Gresham University Commission.	
1894 (March) to 1895 (June). Lord Rosebery, Prime Minister.		1892. Reading University Extension College established.	
1895 (June). Lord Salisbury, Prime Minister.		1893. Exeter University Extension and Technical College established. University of Wales founded.	
	intermediate regulations.		
		1895. Durham University opened its degrees to women.	1896. Catholic Laity renew the declaration of opinions on University Education originally made in 1870. Episcopal Declaration by Roman Catholic Archbishops and Bishops of Ireland on the Irish University question.
		1897. Increase of Treasury Grant to University colleges. Bill for appointment of Statutory Commission on London University.	1897. Renewed Parliamentary discussions on proposed establishment of a Catholic University.

The National System of Education in Ireland.

The object of the National System of education is to afford *combined* literary and moral and *separate* religious instruction to children of all persuasions, under such safeguards and regulations, however, as will secure, as a *fundamental principle* of the system, the non-interference with the peculiar religious tenets of any pupil.

Object and fundamental principle of the system.

No child can be excluded, either directly or indirectly, from attending any National school on account of his religion or of his social position, and no National school is recognised for any select class of children.

The Commissioners desire that the clergy and laity of all denominations should co-operate with the Board in conducting National schools.

Combined literary and moral instruction for pupils of all denominations is made possible by regulations to the following effect :—

Regulations for combined instruction.

(*a.*) No school is recognised if held in a place of worship or in a room having direct internal connection with a place of worship.

(*b.*) No school is recognised under a name or title of a distinctly denominational character.

(*c.*) No emblems or symbols of a denominational character are permitted to be exhibited in a school during the time for combined literary and moral instruction.

(*d.*) The time for combined instruction must be distinctly set forth on the school time-table.

(*e.*) Combined instruction *and* religious instruction cannot be carried on in the same apartment at the same time during school hours.

(*f.*) No prayers, religious exercises, teaching of catechism, &c., are allowed during time for combined literary and moral instruction.

(*g.*) Books used for religious instruction must be put aside in a press during combined instruction, and no book can be used for combined instruction to which the Commissioners object.

(*h.*) Religious instruction, prayer, &c. may take place either before combined literary and moral instruction, or immediately after such instruction, and may take place at one intermediate time, also, provided that, in the latter case, it does not interfere with the usefulness of the school by preventing children of any denomination from availing themselves of its advantages, or causing such children any inconvenience.

(*i.*) The teacher must publicly announce to the pupils when combined instruction ceases and religious instruction begins, or *vice versâ*.

(*j.*) The public generally must have free access to every National school during the hours devoted to combined instruction, and visitors can examine what books are in the hands of the pupils.

(*k.*) Teachers of National schools are cautioned to abstain from controversy, and to do nothing either in or out of school, which might have a tendency to confine it to any denomination of children.

Regulations for religious instruction.

Religious instruction is provided for by regulations to the following effect :—

(*a.*) In vested (see page 3) schools, such pastors or other persons as shall be approved by the parents or guardians of the children must have access to them in the schoolroom for religious instruction at convenient times.

(*b.*) In non-vested (see page 3) schools, if the patrons or managers will not permit religious instruction in the schoolroom, they must allow the pupils, whose parents so desire, to absent themselves from the school at reasonable times, for the purpose of receiving religious instruction elsewhere.

(*c.*) In all vested schools the parents or guardians can require the patrons or managers to afford opportunities for reading the Holy Scriptures in the schoolroom.

(*d.*) Religious instruction, prayer, &c. may take place before and after combined instruction and at one intermediate time.

(*e.*) The Holy Scriptures and standard books of the Church to which the children belong may be used in imparting religious instruction, and other books if approved by the Commissioners. The Commissioners also provide "Scripture lessons," a book of "Sacred poetry," and tablets of the Ten Commandments, which may be used under certain conditions.

(*f.*) Visitors are not allowed to interfere with or be present at religious instruction, as religious instruction is under the control of the clergyman or lay person communicating it with the approbation of the parents of the pupils.

Regulations for safeguarding the pupils from interference with their religion.

The non-interference with the religious tenets of any pupil is specially provided for by regulations to the following effect :—

(*a.*) No Protestant child is permitted to attend religious instruction given by a Roman Catholic teacher ; and no Roman Catholic child is permitted to be present at religious instruction given by a Protestant teacher.

(*b.*) No child can receive or be present at any religious instruction to which his parents or guardians object.

(*c.*) The parent or guardian may, however, by a spontaneous certificate under his hand, express a wish that his

child shall receive such instruction; but in such cases the teacher and inspector by certificates under their hands must declare respectively, (*a*) that the parent in giving the certificate was aware of the full force of the rule, and (*b*) that the certificates of both parent and teacher are genuine.

(*d.*) The register and roll book of a National school must show the religious denomination of each child, which is to be ascertained from the parent or guardian and entered according to his wish.

(*e.*) The teacher must announce beforehand that the time for religious instruction, or the reading of Scripture lessons has arrived, so that children whose parents object to their being present may have time to retire.

Inspection of schools.

All National schools must be open to inspection and examination by the Commissioners or their officers, whenever they think fit.

Alteration of rules or school books.

No fundamental rule of the National System can be changed without the express permission of the Lord Lieutenant; and no book unanimously published or sanctioned by the Commissioners can be withdrawn or essentially altered without a previous communication with the Lord Lieutenant.

Organisation of the National system.

The main basis on which the development of primary education in Ireland is organised is, the granting of aid by the Commissioners, subject to the general principles just set forth, to Local Patrons and Local Managers of National Schools, by way of Grants and Loans for building and repairing School-houses and Teachers' Residences, grants of salary for the Teaching Staffs, and by free grants or supplies at reduced rates of books and requisites for the use of schools, teachers and pupils.

Ordinary National Schools.

At the end of the year 1895 there were 8,557 National Schools in operation throughout Ireland, and of these 7,987 were what are known as "Ordinary" National Schools.

Vested and Non-Vested schools.

Ordinary National Schools consist of two great classes called *Vested* National Schools and *Non-Vested* National Schools. Vested schools are such as have been built by the aid of grants from the National Board and are secured for educational purposes by leases to the Commissioners themselves, or to Trustees. In the latter case the Commissioners are also parties to the leases. Non-Vested National schools are such as have not been built by aid of grants from the National Board and are not secured by leases, or if so secured, not in the manner just indicated.

Aid to build a Vested school.

If it is considered desirable to provide a Vested National School in any district, an application is made to the Commissioners by the local parties interested, for a grant to build a school-house. This application is made on a form provided for the purpose. The Inspector of the district after visiting the site of the proposed school, reports to the Commissioners, and if his report is favourable, the case is referred to the Board of Public Works. The Public Works Department furnish the Commissioners of National Education with full information as to the site of the school, the plans and estimates of the cost, and then, in satis-

factory cases, the Commissioners make a grant of two-thirds of the estimated cost of building and furnishing the house, and enclosing it. The remaining one-third of the cost must be provided by the locality in which the school will be situated.

Grant of salary and books to vested schools.

When the school-house is finished and the school is in actual operation, the Commissioners, after a special report from the Inspector, make a free grant of maps, books, &c. for the use of the school, and grant salaries to the teaching staff.

Aid to non-vested national schools.

When a school is, however, already established and it is desirable to bring it into connexion with the Board as a Non-Vested National School, the local manager makes application to the Commissioners on a special form for grants of salary to the teaching staff and grants of maps, &c. for the school. The District Inspector is instructed to report, and if his report is favourable, the Commissioners usually grant the aid sought for.

Patrons of national schools.

Both classes of ordinary national schools are directly under the patronage of some person or persons. If the school is Vested in the Commissioners, the name of *the Patron*, who is generally the grantor of the site of the school, is inserted in the lease, and if the school is Vested in Trustees, the Trustees are recognised as the Patron. If the school is Non-Vested, the Patron is the person who applies to the Board for aid in the first instance, unless it be otherwise specified in the application, but if there is a Local Committee for managing the school, the Committee is the Patron.

Local Managers.

The Patrons have the right of managing the schools themselves or of nominating fit persons, such as clergymen or persons of good position in society, living in the vicinity of the schools, to act as *Local Managers*. The Local Managers are charged with the direct government of the schools, and they must undertake to visit the schools frequently and to have the regulations of the National Board complied with. The Commissioners, moreover, reserve to themselves the right to refuse to recognise any Patron or Manager or to withdraw their recognition of a Patron or Manager, after due investigation.

In Ordinary National Schools *the teaching staff* may consist of Principal Teachers, Assistant Teachers, Workmistresses, Industrial Teachers, &c., and Monitors. Temporary and Extern teachers are also occasionally employed.

Appointment and dismissal of teachers.

The Local Managers (subject to the approval of the Commissioners) appoint the Principal Teachers, the Assistant teachers, the Workmistresses, &c., but the Commissioners appoint the Monitors from amongst the best pupils of the National Schools, on the recommendation of the District Inspectors. The Local Managers, however, have the right of dispensing with the services of any member of the teaching staff, and the Commissioners also reserve to themselves the right of refusing to recognise, or of refusing to continue the recognition of any member of the teaching staff, and of fining, dismissing, reprimanding, or otherwise punishing any teacher or monitor when necessary.

eements teachers.

The Managers must enter into written agreements with all teachers permanently engaged in the schools. Agreements with monitors and temporary or extern teachers are not required.

Under these agreements the managers cannot dismiss the teachers without giving them three months' notice, unless for sufficient cause, the sufficiency of the cause being determined by a Court of Justice, the Commissioners themselves, &c. (according to the terms of the agreement executed in each case), and, similarly, teachers cannot leave without giving their managers three months' notice, unless for sufficient cause. If a manager summarily dismisses a teacher without sufficient cause he must pay the teacher three months' salary, and if the teacher leaves without due notice and without sufficient cause, he must pay the manager either a sum equivalent to three months' salary or such amount as may be determined by the Commissioners of National Education. Quite recently the Commissioners have sanctioned the use of alternative forms of Agreement in which the intervention of a "Referee" is provided for, in certain cases.

The Teaching Staff.

Principal and Assistant teachers are graded according to their literary attainments into three Classes, and in each of these Classes there are two divisions; so that in reality a teacher after entering the lowest division of Third class, must pass through four successive stages before attaining the highest class, or, as it is called, the First Division of the First Class.

Annual examinations.

A teacher can become "classed" only by examination. The examinations are held annually in the month of July, at various centres throughout the country, by the Board's Officers. All teachers, after examination, are placed in the first instance in the Second division of Third class. Queen's scholars in training colleges may, however, be placed in the First division of Third class, or the Second or First division of Second class at the end of their training course.

Promotions of teachers are made on the following conditions:—

(*a.*) From Second division of Third class to First division of Third class without examination, on the recommendation of the Inspector.

(*b.*) From First division of Third class to Second division of Second class by examination only.

(*c.*) From Second division of Second class to First division of Second class, by examination only.

(*d.*) From First division of Second class to Second division of First class (1) by examination, or (2) without examination, after two consecutive years highly efficient service, in the case of teachers classed and trained under new regulations recently promulgated.

(*e.*) From Second division of First class to First division of First class, (1) by examination after three years' highly efficient service, or (2) without examination, after seven years' highly efficient service.

Rates of class salaries.

To the Third and Second classes and to the First and Second divisions of First class, special rates of salary, ranging from 33*l.* to 84*l.* per annum, are attached. Assistant teachers, however, no matter what their classes may be, are paid at fixed rates not

exceeding third-class salaries, unless they are employed in practising schools of Training Colleges or in Model Schools; but if their service as assistants is over five years, and they are graded higher than third class, they can obtain an annual bonus in addition to their fixed salaries.

Results fees and other payments.

Teachers of ordinary National schools also receive results fees according to the answering of their pupils at the annual results examination, Capitation payments from the Local Taxation (Customs and Excise) grant of 78,000*l.* per annum, and payments out of the grant for free education under the Irish Education Act of 1892, together with Gratuities for training monitors and Premiums from certain local contribution funds.

Work-mistresses.

Workmistresses are not classed teachers. They are paid an annual salary of 12*l.* and get a share of the results fees.

Industrial Teachers are paid, as a rule, salary at the rate of 24*l.* per annum. They do not receive results fees.

Temporary teachers.

Temporary Assistant teachers must, as a rule, be classed. Temporary workmistresses are not classed. These teachers are paid according to the length of their service during each quarter of the year.

Extern eachers.

Extern teachers are paid special salaries in some instances, and they also receive results fees for the subjects they teach.

Average incomes of Principal Teachers.

The average incomes of Principal teachers (men) from all sources in 1895 were as under:—

	£	*s.*	*d.*
First division of First Class - -	152	6	3
Second division of First Class - -	114	5	11½
Second Class (both divisions) - -	95	0	7¼
Third Class (both divisions) - -	75	18	9¼
Average of all Classes - - -	98	16	11¼

The average incomes from all sources of Principal teachers (women) for 1895 were as under:—

	£	*s.*	*d.*
First division of First class - -	125	8	2
Second division of First class - -	97	1	8½
Second Class (both divisions) - -	80	0	7
Third Class (both divisions) - -	63	15	1
Average of all Classes - - -	83	1	11¼

Average incomes of Assistant Teachers.

The average incomes of Assistant teachers from all sources in 1895 were as under:—

	£	*s.*	*d.*
Assistants (men) - - - -	63	6	8¼
Assistants (women) - - -	51	7	5

There were 4,748 male and 3,570 female Principals, and 999 male and 2,533 female Assistants, in the service on 31st December 1895.

Monitors.

The full Monitorial course is of five years' duration. Monitors are, however, appointed for three years only, in the first instance, but may subsequently be continued for two additional years service. Their salaries are dependent on the length of their

service, and range from 5*l.* to 18*l.* per annum for boys, and from 5*l.* to 16*l.* per annum for girls.

Monitors are regarded as pupils, and must receive instruction with the other pupils for a portion of the school hours, and special instruction before or after school hours, from the teachers. The teachers receive, however, special gratuities for this extra instruction. Monitors must be between 12 and 16 years of age when appointed.

Monitors must be examined annually, either in their schools or at a special examination in July, and if they pass successfully at the end of their fifth year of service they are recognised conditionally as teachers of the second division of third class, or lowest grade. There were 1,805 male and 3,932 female Monitors in the service on 31st December 1895.

Method of payment of salaries, &c.

The Salaries and Residual Grant Fees (Irish Education Act, 1892) of Principals and Assistants, and the salaries of Workmistresses, Temporary teachers, Industrial teachers, Extern teachers, and Monitors are paid *quarterly*. The Results fees, Customs and Excise grant, Gratuities, &c., are paid *annually*.

At the end of each quarter, that is on the 31st of March, 30th June, 30th September, and 31st December, the Local Manager forwards to the Education Office a "Quarterly Return," in which he certifies as to the conduct of the teaching staff, the observance of the rules, the correctness of the record of the attendance of the teachers and pupils, the number of days the school was in operation, &c., together with a "Claim" for salary and residual grant, or for salary alone, for each member of the teaching staff, signed not only by the manager himself but by the teacher or monitor seeking payment.

These "Claims" set forth the nature of the service given, whether as Principal, Assistant, Monitor, &c., during the quarter, and the names of the post offices at which payment is to be made. There is also provision on the form for making deductions for pension stoppages in the case of principals and assistants.

The teachers' pension stoppages will be referred to later on.

The "Claims" are examined in the Education Office in connexion with the Quarterly Returns of the Managers, and the reports of the Inspectors on the schools. The amounts are entered in "Salary" books and carefully audited. The "Salary" books show clearly the name of the school, the name of the local manager, the name of each member of the school staff, and the actual amount paid to each teacher during the four quarters of the year. The "claims" when examined and verified are arranged in groups according to the post offices where payment is desired.

Schedules of the amounts payable, giving particulars as to each teacher, the roll number and district of the school, &c. are then prepared for the use of the General Post Office. On receipt of these Schedules the Postal Authorities issue instructions to the

local postmasters to pay the amounts set forth to the persons named in the Schedules, and to identify the payees as far as possible so as to prevent fraud. Concurrently with the issue of the Schedules to the General Post Office, the "Claims" are returned to the local managers. But before being returned, the Financial Assistant Secretary of the Commissioners gives authority to the local postmaster on the face of each claim to pay the amount specified thereon, and the "Claims" are thus really converted into "Money Orders." At the same time also, the Commissioners of National Education request the Paymaster General to transfer from their account to the account of the General Post Office, in the Bank of Ireland, the total amount of the payments appearing on the Schedules.

The Manager receives the Money Orders for the entire school staff and hands each to the person entitled to receive it. After these orders have been presented at the local post offices and paid, they are returned through the General Post Office to the Commissioners of National Education, and finally sent by the Commissioners to the Audit Office as vouchers for the payments made to the teachers.

Method of payment of Results Fees.

Each National School is examined for results once a year, and the Inspector when forwarding to the Education Office his annual Results report, also forwards along with it his "marking paper" showing the marks obtained in each subject by each pupil examined.

The "marking paper" also shows the class in which each child was previously examined, how long he has been enrolled in the class in which he was last examined, &c. Before sending forward the Marking Paper the Inspector carefully examines the school accounts and verifies, amongst other things, the number of attendances made by each child in the results year. No results payment can be sanctioned for any child who has made less than 100 attendances in the results year. In Ireland the schools meet only once each day, for four hours' secular instruction, and a child must be present before the rolls are called to warrant his attendance counting for results purposes.

The "marking papers" are carefully examined in the Education Office, and, if necessary, compared with the "marking papers" of previous years, to prevent, as far as possible, the fraudulent presentation of children for examination and the possibility of over-payments. The amounts in shillings, represented by the pass marks, are then summarised for each school on a separate sheet which forms a portion of the results report, already referred to; and the total sum is allocated to the teachers under certain rules, the general basis of distribution being, that where there is only one teacher he or she receives all the results fees, and where there are more than one, each Principal teacher receives twice as much as any Assistant. Thus, if there is a Principal teacher and one Assistant, the Principal receives two-thirds of the results fees, the Assistant one-third. If there are

two Assistants the Principal teacher receives two-fourths, and each Assistant one-fourth, and so on.

Full details of the marks obtained by the pupils examined are sent from the Education Office for the information of the manager and teacher, on the "Examination" Roll.

Money orders are then prepared in the Education Office for the amount of results fees accruing to each teacher, and also for the amount of the "Customs and Excise" Capitation Grant, if any, which is paid at the same time as the results fees.

In National Schools situated in Poor Law Unions "contributory" under the Act of 1875, the Guardians pay the teachers 50 per cent. additional to the results fees earned; but, on the other hand, the teachers receive no share of the "Customs and Excise" grant, which is paid to the Guardians.

These money orders go through the same processes as the "claims" for salary already referred to, and when fiated by the Financial Assistant Secretary are issued through the Managers to the teachers.

Payment of gratuities, &c.

Gratuities for training monitors, and other payments of a similar character, are also issued directly from the Education Office as money orders.

Of course the various stages in the conduct of the results payments, &c. are closely checked as they proceed.

There are thus two great systems of payment in operation under the National Board, the one *quarterly* and the other *annual*. The first is usually completed within 15 days from receipt of the Quarterly returns and "claims," and the great bulk of the money orders are paid on the 15th January, 15th April, 15th July, and 15th October in each year.

The second, which deals with the payments for results, &c., is going on all the year round, the necessary computations being made, the money orders prepared and issued to the teachers, as a rule, within a month from the date of the receipt of the results report and marking paper in the Education Office.

The great feature of both systems is the payment of all moneys due to the individual members of the teaching staffs by separate money orders, all the processes connected with the preparation of these orders being carried out by the clerical staff of the Education Office.

Model National Schools.

Besides the Ordinary National Schools, there are 84 Model school departments in 29 towns and townships in Ireland. These schools are the property of the Board, and are directly managed by and under the control of the Commissioners. The teachers are classified in the same way as the teachers of ordinary National schools, but are usually selected by competitive examination. The Head Masters are paid their class salaries as a minimum, and these may be increased by annual increments of 5*l.* to 100*l.* per annum as a maximum. Head Mistresses also receive their class salaries to commence with, and these may be increased to 75*l.* per annum as a maximum by annual increments of 2*l.* 10*s.* In certain model schools Head Teachers receive supplemental salaries, but

not exceeding in any case 25*l.* per annum in addition to their salaries. Assistant teachers in Model schools receive their class salaries, and in the case of men, 20*l.* per annum supplemental salary, and in the case of women, 16*l.* per annum supplemental salary. There are special rates of salary fixed for the teachers of the Central Model schools in Marlborough Street. Model school teachers receive also Results fees, Residual Grant fees, and share of school fees. They do not get a share of the Customs and Excise Grant.

Residence, fuel, and light for Head masters of Model schools.

Head Masters of Model schools are provided in most cases with residences, &c., or cash allowances in lieu of them, and additional special payments are available for Masters and Mistresses in certain contingencies.

Monitors are employed in Model schools on the same conditions and at the same rates of pay as in ordinary National schools

Pupil-teachers.

But, in addition to the monitors, *Pupil-teachers* are employed. Pupil-teachers must be at least 16 years of age and not over 20, when appointed. Pupil-teachers are appointed for only one year on the recommendation of the Head and District Inspectors after examination, but they may be continued for a second year. They are not recognised in any schools except Model schools.

At the end of their first year of service Pupil-teachers, after passing a satisfactory examination, may be placed in the lowest grade of classed teachers, *i.e.*, Second division of Third class, and after a second year's service may be promoted to the First division of Third class on the same conditions.

Resident and Extern Pupil-teachers.

In some of the Model schools male Pupil-teachers are boarded and lodged at the expense of the Commissioners, the Head Master receiving for the maintenance of each an allowance at the rate of 26*l.* per annum. Extern Pupil-teachers, male and female, are allowed payment at the rate of 26*l.* per annum, in lieu of board, &c. Gratuities are awarded also to Pupil-teachers at the end of their first year of service, and a small quarterly salary if retained for a second year. Free grants of books are made to Pupil-teachers on first appointment.

There were 113 male and 72 female Pupil-teachers in the Model schools at the end of 1895.

The salaries, &c. of Model school teachers are paid in the same manner as in the case of teachers of ordinary National schools.

Convent and Monastery Schools.

At the end of 1895 there were 325 National schools recognised in connexion with Convents and Monasteries. In 57 of these schools the teachers, though members of religious communities, are "classed," and the schools are conducted, and the teachers paid, in precisely the same manner as in the case of ordinary National schools. In the remaining 268 schools, however, the teachers are not classed, and consequently are not paid "class" salaries, but the conductors of such schools receive a merit capitation grant of 12*s.* or 10*s.* per annum per pupil on the average daily attendance, according to the proficiency of the pupils generally, as reported by the Inspector. The Capitation

Convents and Monastery schools also receive an annual grant of 3*s.* 6*d.* a head for every child between 3 and 15 years of age in average attendance, under the Irish Education Act of 1892. These grants are paid quarterly. In all other respects the "class salary" Convent and Monastery schools and the "capitation" Convent and Monastery schools are identical. Monitors are recognised, results fees, residual grant fees, Customs and Excise Grant Gratuities, &c. are paid in Convent and Monastery schools as in ordinary National schools, the essential difference between Convent and Monastery and ordinary National schools being that the teachers of ordinary National schools are *all* lay persons.

The Commissioners, however, recognise lay persons as Industrial teachers in Convent schools, and pay them fixed salaries. They also recognise and pay extern teachers (lay) of weaving, &c. in connexion with some of the convents. The Conductors of Convent schools, moreover, are at liberty to employ lay persons, who must, however, be classed teachers, to assist them in instructing their pupils, but the Commissioners do not make any remuneration to these lay assistants.

Convent and Monastery schools may be either Vested or Non-Vested (see page 243).

The salaries, results fees, &c. are paid in the same manner as to ordinary National schools.

Industrial Workhouse and Lunatic Asylum National Schools.

The Commissioners inspect and examine Industrial, Workhouse, and Lunatic Asylum schools, if these schools are conducted in accordance with the rules of the Board as National schools, but they do not pay salaries or results fees, &c. to the teachers, and they exercise no control over the appointment or dismissal of the teachers. Monitors are not recognised in schools of these classes.

At the end of 1895 there were 155 Workhouse National schools and 2 Lunatic Asylum National schools on the Commissioners' list.

Evening National Schools.

Evening schools are recognised in connexion with Model, Convent, Monastery, and Ordinary National schools, or as separate and independent schools. The teachers of evening schools in connexion with Model schools are paid special rates of salary; for evening schools in connexion with Convents and Monasteries a capitation payment at the rate of 10*l.* per annum for every 100 pupils in average attendance is allowed; and to the teachers of other evening schools salary at the rate of 1*l.* per month for every month during which the school has been open is paid, subject to certain conditions. The teachers of all evening schools are entitled to results fees in addition to their salaries. The teachers of evening schools receive no benefit under the Irish Education Act of 1892. Evening schools must be open for three evenings in the week, for two hours each evening, and the schools will not be examined for results unless they have been in operation for six continuous months. There were 39 evening schools in operation on the 31st December 1895.

Salaries of the teachers are paid in the same way and on the same conditions as in ordinary National schools.

In connexion with the Irish National System it must be borne in mind that all payments of salary depend mainly on two essential conditions, first, that the teachers are qualified, that is, are (*a*) either persons whose attainments have been tested by examination, or (*b*) members of religious communities of men or women devoted to teaching; and, second, that where class or special salaries are claimed, the attendance at the schools is sufficiently numerous to warrant the payment to the claimants.

No teacher of any National School on the mainland can be paid "class salary," even the salary attached to the third or lowest grade of classification, unless there is an average daily attendance of at least 20 pupils at the school. In the case of schools situated on islands, the teachers are in some instances paid "class salaries" although the average attendance is under 20.

Modified Grant Schools.

But there are numerous small schools with attendances ranging between 10 and 20 pupils scattered throughout Ireland, and where such schools are conducted by competent masters the Commissioners allow an annual capitation salary of 1*l.* 3*s.* 4*d.* for each pupil in average daily attendance; and when the teacher is a mistress an annual capitation salary of 18*s.* 4*d.* per head is paid. The teachers of these schools are also entitled to results fees, &c., and the schools are in all other respects like ordinary National schools. These schools are known as "modified grant" schools.

Agricultural Schools.

School Farms.

The foregoing enumeration exhausts the list of different classes of distinct schools in connexion with the National Board, but some of the ordinary National schools already referred to have farms attached, on which instruction is given in the theory and practice of Agriculture, Gardening, &c., to the pupils. These schools are known as "agricultural schools." There were 46 agricultural schools or school farms in operation on the 31st December 1895. Some of the ordinary National schools not having farms attached, have gardens in which instruction is given in cottage gardening, poultry management, bee-keeping, &c. to the pupils. There were 43 school gardens in operation on the 31st December 1895.

School Gardens.

The teachers of these school farms and school gardens must be competent not only to give the usual literary instruction, but they also must have a sound knowledge of farming and gardening. The payments consist of results fees for the theoretical knowledge displayed by the pupils, special fees for the practical knowledge shown by them and annual awards for good management of the farm or garden generally. The pupils and Monitors that take part in the practical operations of the farm are also paid small fees.

Ordinary National schools are recognised as "school farms" or "school gardens" on the application of the local managers, after reports from the Agricultural Superintendent of the Board

In all National schools, except such as are in large towns, boys of the fourth and higher classes must be taught the theory of Agriculture, for proficiency in which a special results fee is payable.

The Albert Institution, Glasnevin.

The Albert Institution and Model Farm, comprising 180 acres, situated at Glasnevin, co. Dublin, is an Agricultural College belonging to the Commissioners, and entirely under their management, affording to students opportunities of acquiring a theoretical and practical knowledge of Agriculture and the cognate sciences, Dairying, Horticulture, Agricultural Chemistry, Milk Analysis, &c. In the Albert Institution short courses of agricultural training are given to National teachers; and the Queen's scholars (from two of the training colleges) attend at the farm for lectures on agriculture.

The Munster Institution, Cork.

A similar institution belonging also to the Commissioners, situated near Cork, is managed by the Commissioners, assisted by a local body of Governors. In both the Albert and Munster Institutions courses of training for creamery managers are given every year.

Book and requisite supply to National Schools.

One large Department of the Education Office is devoted entirely to the supplying of National schools with books and requisites.

The Commissioners supply all National schools in the first instance with a free stock of books, maps, easels, and other school requisites. Subsequent supplies must, as a rule, be purchased. But the price charged by the Board is generally only the cost price of the articles supplied. The teachers forward a statement of the books, &c. on the board's list, which they require for their own or their pupils' use, to the Book Department, accompanied by a remittance, and the goods ordered are sent, carriage free, from the Commissioners' stores, as soon as possible.

Training of National Teachers.

The training of National Teachers is provided for in five Training Colleges. Four of these colleges are denominational, namely, St. Patrick's, Drumcondra, Dublin, for Roman Catholic male teachers; the Church of Ireland, Kildare Place, Dublin for Protestant male and female teachers; Our Lady of Mercy, Baggot Street, Dublin, for Roman Catholic female teachers; and De La Salle College, Waterford, for Roman Catholic male teachers. The Marlborough Street College, which is entirely under the control of the Commissioners, is undenominational, and is for both male and female teachers. At these colleges nearly 800 students attend annually.

There are two courses in each College, the first lasting for one session, for National teachers already classed who have actual charge of schools, but who are allowed to employ substitutes during their absence at the training college; and the second, or two sessions' course, for classed teachers (who have not actual charge of schools), pupil-teachers, monitors, and other suitable candidates.

The students are called "Queen's Scholars," and are granted diplomas of training after the completion of their courses, and after two years' satisfactory service in National schools.

The College Authorities are paid by instalments at the rate of 50*l.* per annum for each male teacher trained, and 35*l.* per annum for each female teacher trained, besides diploma "bonuses" of 10*l.* and 7*l.* a year for each respectively. The instalments are remitted to the Managers of the Colleges by cheques drawn by the Commissioners.

The accounts of all the colleges are audited by an officer of the Commissioners, and the balance sheets submitted annually to the Board for approval.

The Professors and Staffs of the Denominational colleges are appointed by the managers of these colleges, subject to the general approval of the National Board. The Commissioners appoint the Professors and Staff of Marlborough Street College.

To each college Practising National Schools are attached, and the teachers in these schools have special privileges as regards salaries.

Pensions and Retiring Gratuities to National teachers.

Up to the year 1879 National Teachers retiring from the Board's service could not receive pensions. Gratuities were awarded to deserving teachers on retirement, calculated at the rate of one year's salary for every ten years of actual service as National teachers.

In 1879, however, the National School Teachers (Ireland) Act was passed, which provides for the pensioning of all male teachers who desire to retire after attaining 55 years of age and of all female teachers who wish to retire after attaining 50 years of age. If any teacher, male or female, is compelled to retire before the ages fixed, through broken health, power is given to award a reduced pension or an equivalent gratuity to the teacher so retiring. Male Teachers are obliged as a rule to retire at the age of 65, and Female Teachers at the age of 60.

The teachers pay premiums which are calculated to be equivalent to one-fourth of the benefits they receive under the Act. The remaining three-fourths of the benefits are provided for from the Government endowment of the pension fund.

The premiums payable by the teachers are deducted quarterly from their salaries in the Education Office, and then paid over by the Commissioners to the Teachers' Pensions Office, Dublin Castle. Some of the older teachers refused to pay premiums to the Pension Fund, and on retirement are still granted gratuities under the system in operation before 1879. If a teacher subscribing to the Pension Fund dies before the pensionable age, or before he receives a reduced pension or gratuity, the amount he paid in pension premiums is returned to his legal representatives.

Inspection of National Schools.

The Inspection Staff consists of six Head Inspectors, 66 district inspectors, and 12 Inspectors' assistants, all appointed by

competitive examinations, conducted by the Civil Service Commissioners. The Inspectors' Assistants are selected as a rule from National teachers of the First Class.

There is also an Agricultural Superintendent, a Directress of Needlework, and two Organising Teachers (females) on the permanent staff.

The country is divided into districts, each having an Inspector in charge. The Head inspectors, in addition to the actual inspection of a certain number of schools, exercise a general supervision over the District Inspectors and Inspectors' Assistants. Every school in an inspector's district must be visited at least once a year for the results examination, and on as many other occasions as the Inspector can make available. The Inspectors are assisted in the details of these examinations by the Inspectors' Assistants. The Annual Examination of the teachers and monitors in July each year are conducted by the Head and District inspectors, and all the examination questions are prepared, and the answering of the candidates appraised and marked by them.

The Agricultural Superintendent has special charge of the Albert Institution at Glasnevin, and he also inspects and exercises control over the Munster Institution, Cork, the Agricultural Schools, &c.

Organising teachers.

The Organising Teachers travel from school to school and explain to the teachers the most approved methods of school management and organisation.

Directress of needlework.

The Directress of Needlework has general control of the sewing and advanced needlework of the schools, examines candidates for the position of Workmistress, Industrial teacher, &c., and examines the needlework exercises worked by the teachers and monitors at the July examinations.

Dairy instructors.

The Commissioners also employ three female Dairy Instructors and two male Instructors, who travel through the country and give expositions of the best methods of dairying. The male Instructors devote a considerable portion of their time to the inspection of Creameries.

Teachers' Residences.

The want of proper residences for teachers was for many years a serious blot on the National System, but under Acts passed in 1875, 1881, and 1884, great facilities were given to local managers for providing suitable dwelling-houses. The Board of Works can now on the recommendation of the National Board make loans for building residences up to 250*l.*, repayable annually at the rate of 5*l.* for every 100*l.* advanced. This payment continues for 35 years, and the principal and interest of the loans are then extinguished.

Form XXXV.

The teacher must not be charged, under any circumstances, more than one half the amount annually paid to the Board of Public Works, and the National Board desire that he should, when possible, have a free residence. The Commissioners undertake to make good the second half of the annual payment so

long as the house remains the bonâ fide residence of a National teacher. Thus for an annual rentcharge of 6*l.* 5*s.* (one half 12*l.* 10*s.* full annual repayment) for 35 years, any locality can provide a residence for its teacher, of the value of 250*l.*

But the Commissioners in the case of Vested schools also make grants for the erection, structural improvement or purchase of dwelling-houses for teachers' residences. The grant may be for half the cost, provided such grant does not exceed 100*l.*

The house must be built according to approved plans and to the satisfaction of the Board of Public Works.

From 1875 when the Residence Act came into force, up to the end of 1895, 1,175 applications for loans, and 72 applications for grants have been made to the Commissioners.

According to the returns from local managers, there are 1,322 free residences now provided for Teachers of ordinary National Schools (excluding Convent, Monastery, Model, Workhouse, and Lunatic Asylum Schools).

Under the Irish Education Act of 1892, amended in 1893, local managers and others interested in education can acquire land for the erection of schools and residences by compulsory purchase. This will, no doubt, in the near future cause a large increase in the number of such residences.

School curriculum.

The Commissioners have made the following subjects compulsory in all schools, viz.: reading, writing, arithmetic, spelling, grammar, and geography; together with agriculture in rural schools for boys, and needlework in all girls' schools.

In addition to drawing and vocal music, the following extra subjects are taught, viz.: classics, French, Irish, German, instrumental music, physical science, chemistry, hygiene, geometry, algebra, agriculture, dressmaking, and other industrial branches

The Commissioners at a very early period in their history saw the necessity of stimulating agricultural knowledge in Ireland, and consequently not only opened and endowed the present Albert and Munster Institutions, but established regular agricultural schools at various centres throughout the country, in order to disseminate a practical as well as a theoretical acquaintance with agriculture. Owing, however, to the opposition manifested some years ago in England to State endowments for instruction of farmers, &c., and the objection of the Treasury to the cost of the experiment, the Commissioners were obliged to sell or otherwise dispose of their agricultural establishments, with the exception of the Munster and Albert Institutions.

His Excellency the Lord Lieutenant has recently, at the instance of the National Board, appointed a Commission to inquire as to the best method of introducing manual instruction into the curriculum of the National schools. The Commission has not yet completed its labours.

National Schools.

Many of the National Schools in Ireland have private endowments, and schools of this class have been included in endowment

schemes formulated under the Educational Endowments, Ireland, Act of 1885, and the Commissioners have, in some instances, representatives on the governing bodies of these schools.

Most National Schools have become, under the operations of the financial sections of the Irish Education Act of 1892, free schools, and when the compulsory attendance clauses of the same Act are fully in operation, it is expected that the number of pupils at the schools will be largely augmented. Free Schools.

Great interest is taken by the local managers in the conduct of the schools, and these Managers, of whom there are nearly 3,000, comprise clergymen and laymen of the Roman Catholic, Protestant, Presbyterian, and other Christian denominations, as well as some Jews.

C. T. REDINGTON.

National Education Office, Dublin,
April 14, 1897.

Recent Legislation on Elementary Education in Belgium.

In the summer of 1895, public opinion in Belgium was greatly excited by the Elementary Education Bill then introduced by the Ministry into the Chamber of Representatives. The objects of the Bill were to make religious instruction compulsory in all public elementary schools, to place religious instruction under the direction of the clergy, to provide for the inspection of such teaching by inspectors nominated by the ecclesiastical authorities, to give increased subsidies from public funds to elementary schools under private management, and to improve the position of the teachers. Keen opposition was offered to the Bill, not only by the minority in the Chamber, but by some leading members of the Catholic majority, including the late Prime Minister (M. Beernaert) and the late Minister for Foreign Affairs (Count de Merode Westerloo). The discussion of the Bill in the Chamber gave rise to much angry debate, which culminated on July 18th in a scene of such extreme disorder that the President suspended the sitting. Popular agitation out of doors also reached serious proportions.

The following memorandum is a summary of the course of Belgian legislation on primary education and of the causes which led to the introduction of the new measure, together with an account of its principal provisions.

I.—The Act of 1842.

I. The Elementary Education Act, 1842.

1. The history of the elementary school system of Belgium falls into three well-defined periods, viz.: 1842–1879; 1879–1884; and 1884 to the present time. Belgian elementary education was established by the Law of 1842. This measure threw the responsibility of providing primary instruction on each commune, which was required to tax itself for the purpose,* to provide buildings and furniture,† to appoint teachers,‡ and, under a clause naming a minimum salary, to pay them.§ Free education was provided in the case of *poor* children.‖ The State also made grants in aid,¶ subject to the inspection of the schools** by provincial inspectors appointed by the Crown,††

* Law of 1842, Art. 20.
† *Ibid.* Art. 22.
‡ *Ibid.* Art. 10.
§ *Ibid.* Art. 21.
‖ Law of 1842, Art. 5.
¶ *Ibid.* Art. 25.
** *Ibid.* Art. 26.
†† *Ibid.* Art. 16.

and honorary cantonal inspectors appointed by the Crown on the nomination of a provincial authority.* The commune might suspend a teacher, but on the question of a suspended teacher's dismissal or restoration to office an appeal lay to the Government.† In addition to two training colleges established by the State, private training colleges of a denominational character were also recognised.‡

The law made religious instruction obligatory and placed it under the direction of the minister of the faith professed by the majority of the pupils in the school, children not belonging to the denomination of that majority being dispensed from attendance at the religious lessons.§ Supervision of this religious teaching, including inspection of its methods and results, and the choice of the text-books used for the purpose, was entrusted to the ecclesiastical authorities, who were represented (in a consultative capacity) in the Central Office, and were required to make an annual report to the Minister.‖ A clergyman was attached to the staff of each training college to give religious instruction, the nature of which was determined, and its methods inspected by the ecclesiastical authorities.¶

These arrangements for religious teaching, which were the outcome of a controversy extending over several years, were avowedly adopted as a breach from the political doctrines of the 18th century, which had sought to make education entirely secular and to establish society on a purely rationalistic basis.**

Its results and defects.

The Law of 1842 was carried almost unanimously, and remained in force 37 years. Under its provisions great advances were made in Belgian education, and it is stated by some that the combination of civil and ecclesiastical inspection, and the co-operation of the clergy and the teachers in the school lessons, only rarely led to conflicts between the civil and ecclesiastical authorities, both exercising their rights in a conciliatory spirit.†† On the other hand, there was a steady growth of that section of public opinion which was averse to one of the fundamental principles underlying the law. This was due to the great increase of anti-Catholic feeling in Belgium. When the Law of 1842 was passed, differences of religious opinion were less sharply defined than they afterwards became. Thus in 1846 (since which date no statistics appear to be available) the vast majority of Belgians were returned as Roman Catholics, the total number of Protestants being 6,578 and of Jews, 1336. But thirty years afterwards, the anti-Catholic party (secularist

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* Law of 1842, Art. 13.
† *Ibid.* Art. 11.
‡ Loi sur l'Instruction Primaire, July 1, 1879. Tome première. Brussels, p. 24.
§ Law of 1842, Art. 6.
‖ *Ibid.* Art. 7, 8, 9.
¶ *Ibid.* Art. 36.
** Speech of M. Nothomb in 1842, quoted in preamble to Bill of 1895, p. 4.
†† Preamble to Bill of 1895, p. 5

rather than Protestant in its sympathies) had become very powerful and demanded a change in the law respecting religious education in elementary schools and training colleges. The Law of 1842 had also been much criticised on other grounds, viz., that the system of inspection was imperfect, that there was need for more evening schools and for kindergartens taught on Froebel's lines, that the training colleges required reform, and that the law, as interpreted by the Courts, gave insufficient protection to the teachers against local spite and injustice.*

II.—The Act of 1879.

II. The Elementary Education Act, 1879.

2. Accordingly, in 1879, changes of almost revolutionary importance were made in the Elementary School Law of Belgium. Of these changes, by far the most serious were those affecting religious instruction. It is true that methods of inspection were reformed, the inspectors being made the servants of the central Government; that kindergartens and evening schools were established; and that, while the appointment of teachers was left in the hands of the commune, their right of appeal to the Government in case of suspension or dismissal was more precisely safeguarded. But it was in its bearing on the regulations for religious teaching that the political importance of the measure really lay.

Its supporters, admitting that in some respects the Act of 1842 had done a useful work, argued that "in associating in the "school the action of the State with the action of a favoured "church, viz., that of the majority of the scholars in the school," its provisions "violated the spirit of the Belgian constitution."† "The State and the Churches pursue different ends; the action "of Church and State develops itself in spheres sharply distin-"guished from one another . . . Public education ought to be "under the direction and superintendence of the State alone . . . "Therefore, religious instruction, from which the State should "stand aside, because it is not competent to provide it, cannot "be given a place in the school curriculum." But, they continued, though this is so, the State without compromising its independence may give facilities to the churches in discharging their mission of religious instruction, provided that all denominations receive the same opportunities at its hands.† The Law of 1879 therefore prescribed as follows: "Religious education is left to "the care of the families and to the clergy of different faiths. A "place in the school is given to the clergy, in order that they "may there impart, either *before or after* school hours, religious "instruction to the children of their denomination attending the "school."‡ Religious instruction was removed from the curri-

* Loi sur l'Instruction primaire, 1879, vol. 1, pp. 1 and 2.
† Loi sur l'Instruction primaire, July 1, 1895. Exposé des motifs, pp. 1, 2, 5–7.
‡ Law of 1879, Art. 4.

culum of the schools, instruction in morality retaining its place,* and the organised system of religious inspection necessarily disappeared at the same time.

It was also provided that if no clergyman came to give instruction in the school, the teacher should be entitled to hear the "repetitions" which were "necessary to engrave on the "memory of the child the form of religious instruction prescribed "by the communion to which the latter belonged."† All books used in the schools were to be approved by the Government.‡ The Act, furthermore, withdrew State recognition from private (denominational) training colleges, and the clergyman from the staff of the State training colleges, "assuring to each student complete liberty to perform the religious duties prescribed by the faith to which he belonged.§

This law provoked a storm of opposition, the "neutral school" plan being carried by a majority of only one vote.‖ The Catholic party resented the provisions as to religious teaching, on the grounds that they placed elementary education under the sole control of the civil authority, removed religious instruction from the list of compulsory subjects, insulted the clergy by only giving them a place in the school before or after school hours, and deprived the private training colleges of their rights, which had previously been equal to those of the training colleges established by the State.¶ It is a proof of the intensity of the resentment with which the law was regarded, that the Catholics during the next 18 months founded private elementary schools in 1,936 communes, containing on December 15th, 1880, 455,179 scholars. By March 1883 the number of Catholic schools had risen to 3,905, with 622,437 scholars. Fifteen hundred teachers, men and women, resigned their places in the communal schools in order to take office in those established by the Catholics. During the years December 31st, 1878, to June 30th, 1884, the number of scholars in the communal schools sank from 510,588 to 324,656.** Its results.

III.—The Act of 1884.

3. In 1884 the reaction against the Law of 1879 bore fruit in new legislation. The Elementary School Act of September 20th, 1884, was carried by the Catholic majority. It did not return to the methods of the Law of 1842, nor did it relieve the communes from the responsibility of providing schools, nor did it make religious instruction an obligatory subject in their curricuium; but it gave the communes liberty "to place religious "and moral instruction at the head of the curriculum of all or

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* Law of 1879, Art. 5.
† Exposé des motifs de la loi du Jan. 21, 1879, p. 7.
‡ Law of 1879, Art. 6.
§ *Ibid.* Art. 44. Exposé des motifs, pp. 26 and 27.
‖ Exposé des motifs of the Law of 1895, p. 6.
¶ *Ibid.*, pp. 6 and 7.
** *Ibid.*, p. 8.

" of some of their elementary schools," prescribing that, " such " instruction should be given at the beginning or end of the " other classwork, the children whose parents so desired being " excused from attendance at it."* In order to enable the communes to carry out this provision, they were allowed " to " adopt one or more private schools " (*i.e.*, the Catholic schools established since 1879 by voluntary effort). With the leave of the Crown to be given after taking counsel with the central office, a commune might be relieved from the duty of maintaining or establishing a communal school on other than confessional lines; but this leave could not be given if 20 parents with children of school age demanded a school of the normal communal type.† When a similar number of parents asked that their children might be excused from attending the course of religious instruction provided, the Crown could compel the commune to provide one or more special classes; and if a commune refused to place in the curriculum religious instruction of the kind demanded by 20 such parents, or put obstacles in the way of its being given by the clergy of the denomination in question or their representatives, the Government was authorised to adopt one or more private schools to meet their need, provided that these schools fulfilled the conditions specified for adoption by the commune.‡ These conditions included inspection, certification of the teaching staff, completeness of the curriculum, willingness to receive poor scholars on the ordinary terms fixed by the law, and suitability of position.§

The Act further gave liberty to the provinces and communes to establish training colleges,‖ and restored recognition to private training colleges on condition that the latter submitted to State inspection, and provided a course of instruction suitable to fit teachers for work in the elementary schools.¶

It also continued the system of State inspection of elementary schools, the supervision of religious teaching not being brought within the sphere of the inspectorate.** Teachers were confirmed in their right of appeal to the central office in case of dismissal or of suspension for a period longer than one month. The Act further fixed a minimum limit for the teacher's salary.††

Results of the Act of 1894.

This enactment was followed by considerable reductions in the administrative and teaching staff of the training colleges, 33 private training colleges being restored to recognition between 1885–7.‡‡ In the same three years 802 communal schools were suppressed,§§ and in the communal schools there was a reduction of 492 persons on the teaching staff.‖‖ Those communes which

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* Law of 1884, Art. 4.
† *Ibid.* Art. 1.
‡ *Ibid.* Art. 4.
§ *Ibid.* Art. 9.
‖ Law of 1884, Art. 11.
¶ *Ibid.* Art. 13.
** *Ibid.* Art. 10.
†† *Ibid.* Art. 7.
‡‡ Triennial Report of Primary Education in Belgium, 1885–7 (published in 1889), pp. lxxviii–lxxx.
§§ *Ibid.*, p. xcv.
‖‖ *Ibid.*, p. cxi.

had paid their teachers in excess of the minimum prescribed by the Law of 1884 were at liberty to reduce the salaries to that minimum.* From these, and similar causes, the total cost of primary education in 1887 was 7½ million francs less than in 1883, the last complete year in which the Law of 1879 was in force.†

The following table shows the total expenditure from all sources on recognised elementary schools in Belgium during the years immediately following the Law of 1884‡ :—

Year.	Total Expenditure.
	Francs.
1885	29,480,646
1886	26,940,758
1887	27,329,267
1888	27,328,549
1889	27,711,132
1890	28,898,677
1891	29,043,600
1892	29,545,304
1893	30,263,533

Thus in 1895 there were in Belgium three kinds of elementary schools: (1) communal schools which gave religious instruction at the beginning or end of the other classes; (2) communal schools which gave no religious instruction; (3) confessional schools. The third class might be (*a*) "adopted" by the commune, or, in certain cases of appeal, against the intolerance of the commune, by the Government; or, (*b*) they might receive subsidies from central, provincial, or communal funds, as private and non-adopted schools, provided that they conformed to the conditions of efficiency. On December 31st, 1893, there were 5,778 public elementary schools, 4,195 being communal and 1,583 adopted. Religious teaching was included in the curriculum of all adopted, and 4,042 communal, schools, being only omitted in 153 of the latter type of school.§

But the working of the Act of 1884 was criticised from two points of view—from that of the more extreme Catholic party, and from that of some of the teachers.

The former urged (*a*) that the law did not put religious teaching into the right hands; "practically there can be no "religious instruction in schools without the help of the "clergy";‖ (*b*) that in many important towns religious teaching had been added to the curriculum not from a disinterested desire to provide it, but in order to prevent the Government

* Triennial Report of Primary Education in Belgium, 1885–7 (published in 1889), p. cxviii.

† *Ibid.*, p. cclvii. The actual figures are 7,522,847 fr. 88 c.

‡ See triennial reports of primary education in Belgium, (1) 1885–7, p. cclvii, (2) 1888–90, pp. 573, 595, 617, (3)1891–3, pp. 663, 685, 707.

§ Exposé des motifs. Bill of 1895, p. 9.

‖ *Ibid.*, p. 9.

from stepping in to adopt private schools, and that in such cases the character of the religious instruction left much to be desired; (*c*) that those who, in their anxiety to secure religious instruction between 1879–1884, had founded private schools which were still continued, but (until 1894) were not subsidised by the State, were paying for education twice over, viz., in the schools of their choice, and in the communal schools to which they contributed through central and local taxation.*

The teachers, on the other hand, complained that the Act of 1884 led to great distress among their ranks, because many communal schools were closed in consequence of the new law, the scale of educational expenditure was reduced on all hands, and salaries were frequently lowered from their previous amount to the minimum permitted by the law of 1884, that minimum having been fixed at a point which, though higher than that adopted by some communes, was lower than that customary in others.†

To meet some of the complaints of those who subscribed to private elementary schools, the Belgian Government had provided, in 1894, a sum of 300,000 francs to be spent in aid of private schools. This had encouraged proposals for further expenditure in the same direction.

IV.—The Act of 1895.

The Act of 1895.

4. Accordingly in the summer of 1895 the Belgian Ministry introduced, and, after some alterations, carried, an important Bill for amending the law for primary instruction. Its chief provisions were three: (1) Regulations making religious instruction obligatory in elementary schools, and placing it under the direction of the clergy;‡ (2) provisions for increased subsidies to private elementary schools; and (3) provisions for improving the financial position of the teachers.

(1.) *Provisions for Religious Instruction.*

Provisions as to religious instruction.

In the provisions for the supply of religious instruction, the Act goes back to the plan of the Act of 1842. The following are the clauses:—§

"Art. 4. Elementary instruction includes the following obligatory subjects—religious and moral instruction, reading, writing, ... The clergy are invited to give religious instruction, or to provide for its being given by the teacher, in all elementary schools recognised by this law. The first or the last half-hour of the morning or afternoon lesson of each day is devoted to religious instruction, those children whose parents so desire being excused from attendance."

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* Exposé des motifs Bill of 1895, p. 13. † *Ibid.* p. 18.

‡ The circular of October 1st, 1895, explaining the Act, says: "The teacher is not "authorised to give 'un cours didactique de morale'; because the law desires that "the regular instruction in the principles of morality be based on religious sanctions, "and that it be not separated from the course on religion with which it is so intimately "bound up." *See* page 269, *infra*.

§ Loi Organique de l'instruction primaire, Arts. 4, 5, 23, Bulletin du Ministère de l'Intérieur, 1895, No. 3, pp. 152–160.

"Art. 5. The inspection of religious instruction is exercised by the representatives of the ecclesiastical authorities [This inspection was regulated by a special decree of December 19, 1895, of which a summary is appended on page 270 of this memorandum.] . . . The ecclesiastical authorities make an annual report to the Government on the way in which religious and moral teaching is given in the schools."

In Article 23 it is provided that in each training college, whether established or recognised by the State, there shall be a clergyman charged with the duty of religious instruction, his teaching to be inspected by the religious inspectors named above.

The following points are also worthy of note:—

(*a.*) The regulations with regard to the dispensation of dissidents were much more stringent in the original proposals of the government than in the terms of the Act as finally passed. It was stated in the preamble that the parent or guardian must make an express, absolutely spontaneous, petition for this dispensation, which was only to be granted for conscientious reasons. This provision has been replaced in the Act by a clause in Article 4, which gives the parent the right to dispense his own child, using the formula prescribed in that clause. In the circulaire* of October 1, the governors of the provinces are advised that all initiative in this matter is confined entirely to parents or guardians. No communal authority or teacher may open an inquiry on this subject.

(*b.*) The religious instruction given by the clergyman of the parish or recognised religious community, or by the teacher acting under the minister's direction is not paid for. But if it becomes necessary (in a district where there are many schools or for other reasons) to employ persons other than these, the question of remuneration may be considered by the communal council.†

(*c.*) The clergy giving religious instruction are subject to the authority of their ecclesiastical superiors.

(*d.*) If the clergyman cannot undertake the instruction himself, he may, through the communal council, request the teachers to give it under his supervision. If they refuse, or if the clergyman is unwilling to entrust it to them, he may call in other persons not attached to the school, provided the municipal council approves his choice. The teachers have full liberty to accept or refuse the duty of giving this religious instruction.†

* Circulaire à M.M. Les Gouverneurs de province. Bulletin 1895, No. II., 117.
† " " " " " " 116.

(2.) *Increased Subsidies to Private (voluntary) Schools.*

Subsidies to proposed voluntary schools.

Article 8 provides for an annual grant from the Legislature for elementary education to be divided among communal schools, adopted schools, and private schools. All schools in receipt of subsidy must submit to inspection and conform to the general regulations as to curriculum, staff and position, but private schools will not be under any form of management by the local authority. It is expressly stated, however, that it is not necessary, in order to receive a Government grant, that a private school should include in its curriculum religious instruction.* The basis on which the grant is allocated is the number of distinct classes in the school and of free places in each class, the minimum of the latter being fixed by an order of the Government.†

Bulletin 1895, 218.

The financial ground on which this new grant is justified by the advocates of the measure is that the private schools are estimated to have saved Belgium 6,449,666 francs a year, *i.e.*, if the State and Communes had been required to establish and maintain all the elementary schools, public and private, which are now in existence in Belgium, the annual cost would have been 6½ million francs greater than the present outlay from central, provincial, and communal funds.‡ But these calculations would probably be disputed by the adversaries of the Bill.

(3.) *Proposed Improvements in the Position of the Teachers.*

Improvements in the position of the teachers.

In order to meet the complaints of the teachers, the Act provides :—§

(1.) That any resolution of a communal council suppressing a communal school, or one or more places on the teaching staff, shall be submitted to the central authority and Royal pleasure, the latter to be announced in the *Moniteur.*‖

(2.) That no teacher's salary shall be reduced during his tenure of office in any one commune.¶

(3.) That the communes shall be divided into five categories according to population, and, as living is dearer in populous places, the minimum stipend of the teacher shall vary according to the category in which the commune where his school is situate is placed.**

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* *Cf.* Circulaire à MM. Les Gouverneurs de province. Bulletin 1895, No. II., p. 118, Les écoles privées subsidiées qui ne donneront pas l'enseignement religieuse auront un caractère neutre ou rationaliste.

† Law of 1895, Art. 6 B., and Réglement du 19 Decembre 1895, Arts. 4, 5, 6.

‡ Exposé des motifs of Bill of 1895, pp. 13–17.

§ ,, ,, ,, pp. 18–21.

‖ Act of 1895, Art. 2.

¶ Loi Organ., Art. 13 (7 D., 1895).

** *Ibid.*, Art. 13 (7 D., 1885).

(4.) That all salaries falling below the minimum so prescribed shall be raised to the proper scale by January 1st, 1896.*

(5.) That each teacher shall receive an increment of 100 francs in his salary for each period of four years' service up to the limit of 600 francs in excess of the prescribed minimum. Of this increment the State will pay in the poorer communes two-thirds, in all others one half.†

[The appointment of teachers is left in the hands of the Communes, the teacher's right of appeal, in case of suspension or dismissal, being retained.‡]

V.—Reasons alleged by its Supporters for the Introduction of the Bill, and its Reception in the Chamber.

The introducers of the Bill contended that the present generation of Belgian Socialists were the product of the purely secular teaching in the elementary schools, and that, in order to change the character of public opinion, the State should introduce compulsory religious education.

(1.) Socialist objection.

The opponents of the Bill were in two sections, viz., the Socialists who favoured the principles of the law of 1879, and the moderate Catholic party who were responsible for the law of 1884. The arguments of the first section were represented in the protest of the Town Council of Brussels (Indépendence Belge, July 21, 1895), in which it is urged that the Bill violates the principles of the constitution by requiring parents to make a declaration of their religious faith, and by recognising an official religion; that its provisions will ruin official schools, interfere with communal autonomy, and give no real protection to teachers against uncertainty of tenure or political intrigue.

(1.) Objection of the Modera Catholics.

The views of the more moderate opponents, who were led by M. Beernaert, the late Prime Minister, were expressed in a speech delivered by him on July 14th. He feared that the Bill gave too much power to the State in determining the character of religious instruction, and that in the hands of a Secularist or Anti-Catholic majority the precedent might be used, and the powers employed for the destruction of all religious teaching in schools. Thus, he feared, there might be a constant see-saw in Belgian educational policy; action provoking reaction and leading to incessant change, which would entail great suffering among many teachers and frequent disturbance in public

* Loi Organ., Art. 13 (7 D., 1895). † *Ibid.*, Art. 15 (7 F.).
‡ *Ibid.*, Art. 6 (7 A.).

opinion. He desired to find some more stable settlement of the problem, and summed up his remedy as "liberty, not centralisation; "differentiation of schools, not uniformity of curriculum." "As "the country is divided in opinion on the subject, it has a right "to have schools of different tendencies." He concluded that "If a school comes up to a prescribed minimum of educational "efficiency, the State ought to subsidise it. The parent should "be allowed to choose freely to which kind of school he will "send his child."

Thus the Central or Moderate section, led by M. Beernaert, desired (1) as against the law of 1879, that the State should, *where necessary*, subsidise confessional schools not under local public management, and that each commune should be free to give religious instruction or not, in its own or in adopted schools, as it may prefer; and (2) as against the Bill of M. Burlet, that the communes should not be compelled against their will to make religion an obligatory subject in the curriculum of the communal schools, and to submit to ecclesiastical authority in all matters appertaining to religious instruction.

On July 18th it was proposed to divide the Government Bill into two parts, separating from the rest the clauses touching the remuneration and position of teachers, concerning which all parties seemed to agree. But the Government resisted the motion for so dividing the Bill, and carried the day by 73 votes to 61, with one abstention.

At length, after much discussion, and the acceptance of the alterations already described, the Bill passed through the Chamber of Representatives on August 16, 1895, by 81 votes to 52. There were two abstentions.

APPENDIX.

I.—Extract from the "Reforme" Newspaper of July 13, 1895.

Les réunions de la droite.

"Le Patriote" a publié un compte rendu très complet de la première réunion de la droite relative à la loi scolaire. Voici comment il résume le discours prononcé par M. Beernaert et les répliques des fanatiques du ministère :

M. Beernaert.—Le projet est présenté à titre transitoire. Eh bien! non, la question scolaire doit être résolue définitivement, par une solution large et impartiale. Mes idées, celles que j'ai toujours soutenues, comportent : liberté, non centralisation, différenciation des écoles, non uniformation. Je l'ai dit il y a vingt ans : il faut appliquer à l'enseignement primaire la solution qui a prévalu pour l'enseignement supérieur.

Dans notre régime constitutionnel, l'État n'a pas, il ne peut avoir ni religion, ni morale au sens strict, du mot. *Si l'école répond à un minimum d'exigences pédagogiques, l'Etat doit la subsidier.* Quelle école vaudra le

mieux? Au père de famille de décider. A lui de choisir l'école dont l'esprit répond à ses préférences. Comme le pays est divisé d'opinion, il a droit à des écoles de tendance différente.

Tels étaient nos sentiments en 1884. MM. Woeste et Jacobs ne les partageaient pas et M. Malou se rallia à leur avis.

Le projet actuel est une pas considérable en arrière. Où sont nos revendications touchant la liberté des communes et la liberté des pères de famille? Rappelez-vous nos déclarations et nos actes de 1884: le projet actuel en est le contrepied.

Et en vue de quel résultat? Des écoles qui seront religieuses, confessionnelles, mais en façade, comme décor, rien de plus.

Songez que votre projet constitue un nouveau pas en avant vers la mainmise de l'État sur l'enseignement primaire. Un autre ministère le démarquera tout à son aise. Vous aurez établi l'école confessionnelle obligatoire; ils établiront l'école irréligieuse obligatoire. Simple tour de majorité!

Vous aurez aussi affaibli nos moyen d'action. On a réduit nos écoles catholiques et fait refluer vers les écoles officielles, dites confessionnelles, une partie de leur population! Sur quel terrain vous placerez-vous pour résister? Jusqu'ici, la liberté nous a toujours réussi!

II.—Extract from the "Indépendence Belge," Newspaper of July 21st, 1895.

Voici la protestation du Collège des bourgmestres et échevins de la ville de Bruxelles contre la loi scolaire:—

Considérant que le projet de loi modifiant la loi organique de l'enseignement primaire du 20 Septembre 1884, actuellement soumis aux délibérations des Chambres législatives, en établissant que l'enseignement primaire doit avoir nécessairement pour base l'enseignement de la religion et en obligeant les pères de famille, pour dispenser leurs enfants de cet enseignement, à faire connâitre leurs opinions philosophiques et religieuses, est contraire au principes de la liberté de conscience proclamé par la Constitution; qu'en réalite, le projet reconnait l'existence d'une religion officielle, violant ainsi le principe de la neutralité de l'État en matière de cultes.

Considérant que le projet, en excluant de toute participation aux subsides de l'État les écoles privées qui n'inscrivent pas la religion en tête de leur programme, est contraire à la liberté d'opinion et à l'égalité des citoyens; que le mode de répartition de ces subsides, prévu par le projet, aura pour conséquence la chasse aux enfants pauvres et la ruine des écoles officielles.

Considérant que le projet, en reconnaissant à l'État le droit absolu de révoquer et de mettre en disponibilité par mesure d'ordre les instituers, qui sont des fonctionnaires communaux, porte atteinte à l'autonomie communale; qu'il ne donne nulle satisfaction aux revendications du personnel enseignant et le livre à tous les hasards des luttes politiques.

Considérant enfin que le projet n'est qu'un nouveau genre de discorde scolaire et qu'il tend à la destruction de l'enseignement primaire.

Proteste énergiquement contre le projet de loi présenté par le gouvernement et demande aux Chambres législatives de le rejeter; émet le vœu de voir la loi décréter l'enseignement gratuit, laïque et obligatoire, et organiser les écoles gardiennes et les écoles d'adultes.

Ainsi délibéré en séance du 12 juillet 1895.

III.—Extract from Ministerial Circular of October 1st, 1895.

Instruction in Religion and Morality.

By decreeing that instruction in religion and morality is an integral part of primary instruction, the first paragraph of Article 4 of the law renders compulsory the inclusion of this branch of instruction in the curriculum of primary schools; but since, by virtue of section 2 of Article 8, State subsidies may be granted to non-adopted private schools without

their being constrained to include this subject in their curriculum, it follows that it is only communal schools and adopted private schools which are bound to organise this instruction according to the terms of the law.

The ministers of the churches are alone able to give, or to cause to be given under their direction, the instruction in religion and morality. Thus section 3 of Article 4 of the law entrusts this duty to them:—

"The ministers of the various churches are invited to give, in the primary schools subject to the present law, the instruction in religion and morality, or to cause it to be given either by the teacher, if he is willing, or by some other person approved by the municipal council."

This regulation placing the various recognised churches on the same level, makes it imperative that the executive measures should create no privilege in favour of any one creed. The application of this principle is shown in the following regulations.

The religious instruction given will be that of the denomination to which the majority of pupils belong, whether that denomination be Catholic or Protestant, Anglican or Jewish. If the pupils of a school belong to two or more denominations, the religious instruction shall be given not only by the minister of the denomination of the majority, but also by the minister of every other recognised denomination, if the number of pupils be sufficient. Until a general regulation is issued, 20 pupils will be considered a sufficient number in schools with only one teacher, and 40 in schools with two or more teachers.

If the number of children belonging to a denomination other than that of the majority does not reach the limit above fixed, the minister of that denomination will not be allowed to give the religious instruction at the school; but the communal authority must so fix the hours and days of instruction, that these children have every opportunity of receiving religious instruction in places chosen by the minister of their denomination.

When two or more clergymen of different denominations are invited to give religious instruction in the same school, this instruction is to be so organised that all dispute may be avoided.

It is possible that experience will show the necessity of issuing a general regulation on this subject; meanwhile the communal council will submit to the Minister of the Interior and of Public Instruction a scheme drawn up after consulting the clergymen. The scheme will determine the places of instruction and the days and hours assigned to each clergyman.

The choice of the clergyman to be asked to give the instruction rests with the head of each denomination, who must not fail to give the necessary instructions to his assistants in each locality.

It is the right of the municipal council to invite the clergyman in charge of the parish or religious community to give or cause to be given, under his direction, the instruction in religion and morality in the communal elementary schools.

In the case of an adopted school the invitation is addressed to the clergyman by the headmaster or by the board of managers.

* * * * * *

The communal authority can make no agreement, relative to the religious instruction, with the clergyman. Its duty is to take the necessary steps to secure the loyal execution of Article 4.

If the clergyman is willing to give the instruction in religion and morals, either himself or with the help of his assistant clergy, he informs the municipal council of the fact in writing. If he finds himself unable to accept this duty and has no assistants, he places himself, through the mediation of the municipal council, in communication with the teachers, and entrusts them, if they are willing, with the duty of giving this instruction, each of them in the class of which he is class-master.

If some of the teachers refuse, or if the clergyman cannot avail himself of their help, he can ask one or more members of the staff whom he deems perfectly trustworthy, to undertake this instruction in two or more classes.

The word "teacher" means any member of the staff of a primary school. The teachers retain perfect liberty to accept or refuse this duty of giving religious instruction.

If the clergyman feels himself unable to make such a proposal to a teacher, or if one or more teachers refuse it, he may apply to other persons not attached to the school, provided they are approved by the communal council.

The instruction in religion and morality will not be remunerated when it is given by the teacher or by the clergyman. Remuneration may be given to other persons who have been appointed with the consent of the municipal council.

* * * * * *

The petitions for dispensation are to be addressed in writing to the headmaster of the school. If the head of the family cannot write, the mayor or the clerk of the public instruction department draws up the declaration of the parent. This declaration is a dispensation for those children in whose favour it has been drawn up. All children for whom no dispensation has been asked, are bound to attend the instruction in religion and morality. No communal authority nor teacher is empowered to open an inquiry to assure themselves of the intentions of the parents with regard to religious instruction; all initiative in this matter of dispensation belongs entirely to parents and guardians.

The communal schools and the adopted schools will devote half an hour a day to instruction in religion and morality. During the rest of the day the character of the school will differ according as it is attended by children excused the religious instruction, or by children none of whom are thus excused.

In the first case, even if only a single pupil be excused, the teacher is bound to abstain, in his secular teaching, from all consideration or explanation of religious dogmas; not only ought he, according to Article 6 of the law, to abstain from every attack on the religious convictions of the families whose children are committed to his care, but his instruction must not be warped by any confessional bias; in other words he will occupy the attention of his pupils neither with dogmas nor with the differences between the creeds.

The teacher is not authorised to give a course on morals; the law intends that the regular inculcations of moral principles should be based on religious sanctions and should not be separated from religious instruction with which it is intimately connected. But it is not to be inferred that the teacher may neglect the moral education of his pupils. His duty is, on the contrary, to work for that end with zeal and perseverance; to take advantage of the numerous opportunities which the daily lessons, the recreations, the games, the incidents of school life offer him of enlightening the conscience of his pupils, of inspiring them with principles of honour and righteousness, of inculcating good habits, of weakening and correcting their evil inclinations. The reading book will be of peculiar assistance to him in the accomplishment of this part of his mission, for the moral tales, the fables and little pieces of poetry, portray, in a concrete and pleasing form, the principal moral duties which these children have to fulfill.

In applying himself with anxious care to the task of forming good habits in his pupils, the teacher must never forget that he is bound to observe a large circumspection in his instruction, and that the law commands him to respect the religious and philosophical convictions of the parents of the pupils entrusted to his care.

When the school is attended by children whose parents, without exception, belong to the same denomination, and when the school, in consequence does not contain a single pupil excused the religious instruction, the teacher will respond to the wish of the parents, without disregarding the terms of the law, in recalling in his secular teaching, when the opportunity offers, the grand truths and dogmas of religion; thus allowing the two sides of instruction to mutually strengthen one another, and giving a denominational character to his school which secures

for the children the unspeakable benefit of a religious and moral education, without impairing in any manner their secular instruction.

To sum up, there will be two types of communal and adopted schools—

1. Schools of a mixed character, with a minimum of religious instruction, securing to all parents, whatever may be their religious beliefs or philosophical opinions, a curriculum which respects their convictions.

2. Schools with a more or less pronounced denominational character.

Subsidised private schools when they include instruction in religion and morality in their curriculum, may be, like the similarly situated public schools, either mixed or confessional.

Those which give no religious instruction will have a neutral or nationalist character.

IV.—Abstract of the Ministerial Decree of December 19th, 1895, on the Inspection of Religious Instruction.

Catholic.

1. In each province there is an ecclesiastical inspector with the title of "chief diocesan inspector," and in each district a diocesan inspector. When the appointment of an inspector has been notified by the bishop to the minister of the interior, the latter informs the local authorities concerned.

2. The salary of a chief inspector is fixed at 4,200 francs, that of a diocesan inspector at 3,300.

No travelling expenses will be allowed.

3. Subject to the inspection are—

(i.) communal primary schools;
(ii.) adopted primary schools;
(iii.) State-aided private schools, in which religion is taught;
(iv.) training colleges and their practising schools.

Each school must be visited at least once a year. The inspectors may visit the school at any hour during the school day.

The teacher, who gives the instruction is present at the inspection, the minister superintending it, and the chief teacher of the school, if he has agreed to give his help, may also attend.

The children duly exempt leave the room and must be fittingly occupied during the inspection.

4. The inspectors send their reports to the diocesan authority, and the Act requires each "Cult" to make an annual report to the Minister of the Interior on this inspection, Article 5, page 4.

Protestant.

The inspector is appointed by the Consistory; is paid no salary, but receives travelling expenses (40 c. per kilometer by road or water, 20 by rail), and an allowance of 12 francs a day (6 only if he returns the same day). The route to be approved beforehand by the Minister.

In mixed schools the Minister is to take the necessary measures to prevent disputes with regard to inspection.

The same regulations apply to Jewish inspectors.

M. E. Sadler.
R. L. Morant.

The Housewifery Schools and Classes of Belgium.

The Labour Commission appointed by the Belgian Government recommended the establishment of housewifery schools as a means of improving the moral and material conditions of the working classes. The result of this recommendation was a Circular issued in June 1889, by the Minister of Agriculture, Industry and Public Works to the provincial governors, asking for their active co-operation in the creation and maintenance of housewifery schools. Housewifery schools recommended by Labour Commission.

The Minister in this Circular points out the fact that the girls who become the wives of working men receive very little instruction, and have very little opportunity for practice in the duties which should occupy the greater portion of their lives. It is true that needlework and the theory of domestic economy are taught in the primary schools, but the girls have ample time to forget anything that they learn in this way. At an early age they begin to maintain themselves by work in mines, factories and workshops. They have neither time nor inclination for the housework which will become their main occupation after marriage. Action of the Government.

The object of the housewifery school, therefore, should be to give to girls of the industrial classes that instruction and practice in the work of a house which, in other circumstances, a careful, economical mother might be expected to give to her daughters. Aim of the schools.

The Circular further points out that this may be done in three ways : Methods recommended in Government Circular.

(1.) By the teaching of hygiene and domestic economy in the primary schools.

(2.) By the formation of *classes ménagères* for practice in housework for the children of the highest class in the primary schools.

(3.) By the establishment of *écoles ménagères* for girls who have left the primary schools.

The three methods can be worked together. The first, by itself, is unsatisfactory ; for children are unable of themselves to apply the theories they learn to practice.

The Government promised to make grants towards the initial expense of establishing classes and schools, and towards their annual expenditure, and made some general recommendations as to the curriculum, based on the work of some schools which had already been begun in Hainault. Government grant.

A central committee of patronage and a propagandist committee for each province were established by Royal Decree and the supervision of the whole was given to the Minister of Agriculture, Industry and Public Works. Organisation.

The result has been the establishment during the last six years of a large number of such classes and schools throughout

the Kingdom. There are at present about 60 in the provinces of Hainault and Flanders alone. To such an extent has the work developed that its supervision has been transferred from the Department of Agriculture to a new department "de l'Industrie et de l'Enseignement Professionel."

Work of local bodies.

In no case has the Central Department taken the initiative in establishing schools and classes. This has been left to communes, to local committees, to religious bodies, and to individuals. The grant is not given until the school is already at work with an attendance of at least 12 scholars.

Work of Central Departments.

The work of the Department has been merely to lay down general regulations which must be conformed with in order to entitle the class or school to a subsidy from the Government, and to inspect the schools in order to ascertain that the regulations have been complied with.

The inspector-general is M. Rombaut, who is assisted by three ladies.

Issue of a new Circular.

Although the regulations of the Circular of 1889 are still in force, they are in practice being gradually modified, especially in new schools, in accordance with the recommendations of the inspector and his staff. A new Circular* is shortly to be issued by the Minister of the Department, which will probably give sanction to these changes.

Proposed changes.

Some of the most important are:—

Change in organisation.

(1.) The provincial committees have not been found effective instruments in furthering the work, as they have not had the power of the purse. The local committees have made direct application to the Central Department, and this method has worked quite satisfactorily. Therefore the provincial committees may be suppressed.

Charge of fee recommended.

(2.) Free schools have in many cases failed. The exaction of a small fee (*e.g.* 5 francs) to be refunded to the scholar at the end of the session as a reward for regular attendance has often revived a school on the point of extinction. Therefore the universal payment of a fee may be recommended by the new circular.

Suppression of classes for school children.

(3.) The classes ménagères in connexion with primary schools have sometimes proved unsuccessful. The Circular may, therefore, recommend that the classes for school children be discouraged in favour of the schools for girls who have left school.

Disadvantages of these classes.

M. Rombaut is of opinion that the instruction which can be given to children of the age of 12, who are still at school, is of very little, if of any, value, and he gives the following reasons:—

(*a.*) Children of that age have not the physical strength to be employed profitably in practical household work.

(*b.*) The time spent in the classe ménagère must be taken either from the time which should be spent in the

* This circular has not yet appeared. May 1897

primary school or from the children's free time (*i.e.* after school hours and the weekly half-holiday). In the first case, the work of the primary schools, already groaning under an overladen curriculum, is seriously interfered with; and in the second, the children are deprived of what should, rightly enough, be their play-time.

(*c.*) The lapse of time between the girls' leaving the primary schools and the housewifery classes and their marriage is so long that they must needs forget what they have been taught, especially as so many spend the interval in factories and mines with very little opportunity of putting their lessons into practice.

(*d.*) In some cases, negligent and idle mothers take advantage of their children's knowledge, and impose upon them, young as they are, an undue share of housework.

M. Rombaut is, therefore, in favour of raising the minimum age for both *classes and écoles ménagères* from 12 and 13 respectively (as it stands at present) to 14.

Difficulty of getting older scholars.

The great objection is that in this way the majority of those for whom the schools are intended might escape.

Nevertheless, after six years' experience, M. Rombaut is inclined to think that this difficulty may be overcome.

His reasons are:—

(*a.*) Many of the schools have had a phenomenal success. When parents have been, by experience, convinced that their children are learning what is of real utility they have been found willing to make the sacrifices necessary to obtain that instruction for them. It may, therefore, be confidently expected that the demand for these schools will increase, provided the teaching be efficient.

(*b.*) In order to make it possible for girls to attend classes and schools, the Government is willing to allow them to be held at the times which suit best the occupations of the people—in some places, in the evenings, in others on Mondays (a general holiday in some districts), and in others, on Sundays.

(*c.*) In full confidence that the work will spread, the Government is prepared to subsidise schools and classes which open with very small numbers, even with as few as eight scholars, and to recommend that the head teacher be paid at a rate independent of the numbers in the school.

(*d.*) Lastly, the law which forbids the employment in mines, of girls under 16, makes it possible to attract into these schools a class in most need of instruction, since the girls in mining districts have thus two or three years of desultory employment.

Advantages o classes for school children.

Although the Inspector-General is thus inclined to condemn the housewifery classes for children attending primary schools,

and to encourage exclusively schools and classes for girls over 14, yet some of the most successful classes have been of the former type. The classe ménagère, Rue Everaerts, Antwerp, which worked in the Antwerp Exhibition of 1894, and which is the model on which all classes and schools in the provinces of Antwerp and Flanders are being formed, was founded by Mlle. van Gehuchten, then headmistress of a primary school, now inspectress of housewifery schools and classes, and is still very successfully carried on, in connexion with the primary school.

One advantage of such classes (which are, as a rule, conducted by the teachers of the primary school) is that the children are taught household work by those to whom they are accustomed to look for instruction in other more intellectual subjects. The discipline is made easy, and the importance of housework raised in their eyes.

An incidental advantage (of great value in a country where education is not compulsory) is that children sometimes remain at school longer than they otherwise would, in order to reach the "classe supérieure," and have the privilege of attending the housewifery class.

The general opinion of head mistresses seems to be that if the minimum age were raised to 14, and the primary school housewifery classes suppressed, a few children might thus be led to stay at school until old enough to pass on to the école ménagère, but that more of those who now have the advantage of attending the class at the age of 12 would leave before reaching the age of 14, and begin work at once in factories and workshops.

They seem to be also of opinion that though the older girls profit much more quickly by the course, yet the work of children of 12 and 13 is of real utility. The directress of a school where children are received from the age of 13 stated that the doctors of the neighbourhood bore testimony to the good influence of the school; they could easily distinguish houses from which girls attended the housewifery school, for the rooms were cleaner, the patients better tended, and the doctor's orders more accurately carried out.

Distinction between class and school.

The new Circular will destroy the distinction between the *classes ménagères* and the *écoles ménagères* made in the Circular of 1889, and will definitely establish another distinction already in force.

A *classe ménagère*, to obtain the Government grant of one-half of the initial cost of apparatus and of one-third of the annual expenditure, must be held at least twice a week for 2½ hours, either morning, afternoon, or evening.

An *école ménagère*, to obtain the same grant towards initial expenses and two-fifths of the annual expenditure, must be open at least four days a week.

To encourage the work among girls who are employed during the whole day, the Government, in some cases, recognizes Classes held four evenings a week as *Schools*.

Other conditions of obtaining the grant are :— Conditions of grant.

(1.) The course must be held during at least six months of the year, either in winter or summer according to the needs of the locality.

(2.) The scheme of work must be submitted to the Department for approval, and must include (1) Cooking, (2) Washing. (3) Ironing. (4) Cleaning. (5) Sewing, with at least one lesson a week in theory.

In country districts, gardening and poultry-keeping are added. Each scholar must follow the whole course.

(3.) The time table must be so arranged that the five obligatory branches be worked, as far as possible, simultaneously, the girls being divided into groups, generally of six, for this purpose.

(4.) There must be at least one mistress for 24 girls.

While these general regulations must be observed, the Department is extremely anxious that the classes and schools should be adapted to the special needs of the different classes of the population—agricultural, industrial, or mining. For this reason, the drawing up of the detailed scheme is left in the hands of the local bodies.

The aim of the general regulations of the Department is to confine the schools and classes to their province of providing capable housewives for the working men, and to prevent them from becoming places for the training of teachers, dressmakers, laundresses, ladies' maids, cooks, &c. Experience has shown that this is a real danger. So strongly did the inspector feel on this point that he declared that when he heard from a head mistress that former scholars were leaving the village and obtaining good places, he considered it necessary to threaten the withdrawal of the grant. Danger to be guarded against.

Cooking.

The work in this subject consists of the preparation of a dinner for six persons (the average number of a Belgian family) at a cost not exceeding 1 fr. 50 c., *i.e.*, 25 c. a head. Work in the schools.

This regulation necessarily entails the strictest economy—a wise provision, seeing that girls from the poorest homes are ignorant of the simplest economies, *e.g.*, the use of dripping instead of butter. Cooking of dinner. Cost.

The menu must include (1) soup, (2) meat, (3) vegetable. The cost ought to vary, within the limit, with the rate of wages in the district. In districts where the rate of wages is high, an additional course may sometimes be added at a cost not exceeding 50 centimes. Menu.

An essential feature of the cookery course is that the girls properly lay the table, and in the presence of the mistress sit down to the meal which they have cooked. In some schools the girls take it in turns to carve the meat and serve the vegetables. Dinner eaten by scholars.

It is found that sitting down to table in an orderly fashion very rapidly leads to a marked improvement in the manners of the girls. Its usefulness may be inferred from the fact that girls sometimes enter the classes ignorant of the use of a fork.

The menu for each day is written on a large black-board, with additional columns showing (1) time required for cooking each dish, (2) cost of each dish, (3) cost of each dish for one person, and total cost.

The girls are required to have exercise-books, in which they copy each menu and write out fully the ingredients and method of preparation of each dish. It is supposed that this book will be of more practical use to them afterwards, when they have the management of a house, than any printed cookery book could be. Wherever it is practicable, the girls themselves do the necessary marketing; if they are young, they are accompanied by a mistress; if older, they are trusted to do it themselves. Where it is impossible or inconvenient to send the girls to the market or to shops, the mistress buys the vegetables, &c., wholesale, and makes an imaginary sale of them, retail, to the girls.

Marketing.

Wide-spreading results are expected and are already beginning to be seen from this practical method of teaching cookery. The use of meat is being introduced into families where it has hitherto been practically unknown. One main object of the schools is to increase the efficiency of the working men by improving their diet, which in the poorest parts of Belgium consists almost entirely of potatoes, bread and coffee.

In some schools the course includes the making of bread and the preserving of vegetables by different methods, but it practically remains the same during the whole time a scholar attends the school. Different menus are taken, but never a more elaborate one.

Simple apparatus.

The apparatus is of the utmost simplicity. A stove with a small oven, worth about 2*l.*, such as is found in most working-men's cottages is used, and the fuel is invariably wood or coal.

Washing and Ironing.

Washing of clothes brought from home.

This subject is worked in an equally simple fashion. Each school has one or two ordinary round wooden wash-tubs. Occasionally a rude kind of washing machine, worth a few francs, is used, but mangles seem to be unknown. It has been found necessary to have a heating apparatus for the irons, but the use of the kitchen fire is insisted upon as long as it is available.

The children are taught practically the various processes to which the clothes are subjected—soaking, rubbing, boiling rinsing, folding, &c.: two or three are generally at work round each tub.

In ironing, the simplest articles, such as towels and handkerchiefs, are first taken; and generally it is not until their

second year that the girls attempt starched garments. Men's starched shirts are not attempted at all, except in schools which have a third and fourth year's course. The garments for washing and ironing are brought by the children from their own homes.

Cleaning.

This subject is necessarily open to more variety in its working than the preceding. In some schools there is no group of scholars set apart specially for this work, but it is done by the cooking group in the intervals of the preparation of dinner and after the meal.

The premises, windows, paint, stairs, &c., are kept clean by the children, and, of course, the kitchen utensils. They trim the school lamps, and occasionally re-varnish the furniture.

In other schools, the cleaning is done more systematically. The girls bring from their homes, boots, knives, spoons and forks, copper and tin saucepans, &c., and are taught the best methods and materials for cleaning each.

Sewing.

Mending of garments.

The characteristic of this branch is its eminent practicalness. By far the greater part of the time is devoted to the mending rather than the making of garments. The group of six or eight whose turn it is to sew, bring from home stockings, tablecloths and towels to be darned, children's pinafores to be patched, men's trousers to be reseated, dresses that the elder children have outgrown to be cut down and refashioned for the little ones. As they have been taught general methods of needlework in the primary school, the mistress attempts only a general supervision (indeed, this alone is possible, as in most cases she is superintending, at the same time, the work of three or four other groups of girls) and the girls have to rely upon themselves. The results as regards stitching are by no means such as would satisfy the inspectress in an English school accustomed to the work of "specimens"; but the work as a whole quite reaches the level that could be fairly expected from the busy mother of a young family; the darns and the patches will last certainly as long as the garments.

On the principle of practice making perfect, a very large quantity of mending is done during the course. It is not uncommon for a scholar to do the whole mending of the family while she attends school.

Making garments.

The making of garments occupies a larger share of the second year's course, but here again the object is rather the production of many useful articles than the careful elaboration of one. The more advanced scholars are able to make strong useful dresses for themselves, and shirts and blouses for their fathers and brothers.

Cutting-out.

The cutting-out is done in as practical a manner as possible. As a rule the children are supplied with patterns with the help of

which they cut out and make garments as simply and quickly as they can. In some schools, however, cutting-out by measurement is taught. The use of a machine is allowed in the case of older girls.

Cleaning of men's clothes.

The girls are taught to clean stuff garments with ammonia, benzine, &c., and to remove from them grease-spots by various methods.

Although the general rule is that the same amount of time shall be given to each of the five obligatory branches, yet, very frequently, a much longer time is devoted to needlework than to the others. In some schools, the work is so arranged that three and even six times as much time is devoted to sewing as to all the other branches taken together; and the Government regulations allow the sewing group to be larger than the other groups.

This arrangement seems to be inevitable in large schools (as distinguished from classes) where the girls attend sometimes five whole days a week, and the course lasts two or even three and four years. The result is that in spite of the Government regulations the girls qualify themselves as dressmakers, tailoresses, and ladies' maids.

Theory.

Domestic economy and hygiene.

At least one lesson a week must be given on domestic economy and hygiene.

In the case of the classe ménagère connected with a primary school, this is generally given in the school as part of the ordinary school course to the whole class from which the scholars of the classe ménagère are taken.

In a day école ménagère the theory lessons are given generally in the afternoon, but in evening schools and classes the practical work is suspended for the necessary time.

No science.

The lessons are of the simplest, and cannot in any way be described as science lessons.

Hardly an attempt is made to teach the chemical composition of food, air and water. The children learn that a man who works hard and perspires a good deal should eat plenty of vegetables and fat, and that it is unhealthy to live in a room of which the windows do not open, but only a very general explanation is attempted.

The lessons are usually upon the reasons for the various processes employed in cooking, washing, ironing and cleaning, with the object of exercising the girls' thought and intelligence upon household matters, but they also include such subjects as—

Arrangement and cost of household furniture.
House-cleaning, daily, weekly, yearly.
Arrangement of housework for a day.
Making of a bed, with practical demonstration.
Lighting and cleaning of a petroleum lamp.
Household remedies for cuts, burns, bruises.
Changing the sheets for a bedridden person, &c.

Aim of the teaching.

There is no attempt at a co-ordination of the subjects on a scientific basis, and, though the educative side of the work is not altogether ignored, still it is first the formation of useful and economical habits that is sought, and not the training of the intelligence.

Yet a capable mistress is able to make these lessons the means of widening the interests and stimulating the observation of the girls. On the walls of one school hang the time-table and map of the Belgian railways, and a table of the postal and savings bank regulations, and the girls from time to time are set to find out trains from one town to another, and the Government system of insurance is explained to them.

The girls in another school have been encouraged to make a collection of simple remedies and surgical appliances, and each has her box containing lint, cotton-wool, mustard plasters, arnica, camphor, &c. In another, the daily accounts of an imaginary family are kept and duly balanced every week.

Difficulties in working schools.

In spite of the general success of the housewifery schools and classes, the difficulties of establishing and working them have been very great, and even now, after six years, there are certain important points of organisation and method upon which opinions are still divided.

The most important of these questions is as to the advisability of teaching housework to young children still in the primary schools. The arguments that are given on both sides have already been referred to.

Obtaining scholars.

In any case, the great difficulty remains of attracting to the schools and classes girls of the right class.

Even under the present system the children of the poorest parents escape, for they are rarely found in the upper classes of the primary school, and it is even more difficult to draw them into schools at a later age.

Prizes. diplomas.

M. Rombaut's suggestions for meeting this difficulty have already been given. In addition, a system of prizes is largely resorted to, and a diploma, which is highly prized, is sometimes given to the most efficient scholars, on their completing the course.

Dinner.

No doubt, too, the dinner, free of charge, acts as a standing inducement in the poorer districts.

Securing help of parents.

Another difficulty is that of securing the co-operation of the parents in the work of the schools and classes. When a school is first started, it is found that the parents are very unwilling to allow their children to take from home things to wash, clean, or mend, but in time this opposition is generally overcome, and, by inviting parents to see the school at work, and in other ways, their active help is at last obtained.

Another point, not finally settled, is the suitable length of the course. At present, in classes it is usually two years; in schools, two, three, or even four years, though, as a fact, by far the greater number of children remain but one year.

It was the opinion of one of the inspectresses that one year's attendance at a school was quite enough to train a notable housewife.

In schools where the course extends to three or four years a disproportionate amount of time is given to needlework, and the object of the school thereby defeated.

Finding the teachers.

The greatest practical difficulty hitherto has been, however, neither in attracting scholars, nor in conciliating parents, but in finding the staff.

The head mistresses and assistants have been generally primary school teachers who have passed through training colleges, where for some years domestic economy and a short course of practical cookery have been compulsory.

A more intimate and practical knowledge of the general work of a house than can be acquired in this way has, however, been found necessary. To supply this deficiency on the part of the teacher, the head mistresses have obtained as helpers "femmes de ménage," *i.e.*, women with the necessary practical knowledge, but without education, and, of course, teaching power. The plan has not worked successfully as a rule, though under a very capable head it has answered here and there. Discipline suffers, and the women, lacking the patience of a teacher, do the work themselves.

As soon as the school has been working a year the work of the mistress is made much easier by the presence of scholars who have already been through the course.

For the last five years a holiday course for trained teachers and for those who have obtained employment in housewifery schools and classes has been held for six weeks in the summer at the training college at Liège, and a diploma granted to those who pass an examination at the end of the course. In this way the demand for qualified teachers is being met.

KATHARINE S. BLOCK.
June 8th, 1896. LAURA BRACKENBURY.

We visited the following housewifery schools and classes which were recommended to us as fairly representative by:—

M. Rombaut, Inspector-General, Brussels;

Mlle. Henkels, Inspectress of Housewifery Schools in Hainault, Wavre;

Mlle. van Gehuchten, Inspectress of Housewifery Schools in Antwerp and Flanders, Place du Marteau, 7, Antwerp.

SCHOOLS IN THE COAL AND IRON DISTRICTS OF HAINAULT.

**Frameries.*

1. Classe ménagère communale for adults, *i.e.*, girls over 14, open four evenings a week from 7 to 9.
2. Classe ménagère communale for children of the primary school, held on Thursday from 1 to 4.

The adult class consists of girls of the poorest class, from the shoe factories and even the mines.

There are about 70 on the registers.

The work is in the hands of a directress with one assistant.

The girls are divided into groups of about 20.

Each group for a week works under the directress at cooking, washing, ironing and cleaning, while the other two groups take needlework with the assistant.

**Ecaussines d'Enghien.*

École ménagère communale, open four days a week from 8.30 to 12 and 1.30 to 4.

This school is annexed to a hospice for 30 old men, conducted by nuns. Two nuns are attached exclusively to the école ménagère.

The scholars are admitted at the age of 13. They are chiefly the children of the workers in the neighbouring slate quarries. They are from 90 to 100 in number, and are divided into two sections, each coming four half-days a week.

Groups of about six work at cooking, ironing, washing, cleaning, and the remainder, about 24, take needlework. The work in this school is more than usually practical. The girls take a share in mending, cleaning, and washing the clothes of the inmates of the hospice. They make the beds, bake the bread, and do the marketing of the whole establishment. The course lasts two years. About three-fourths of the scholars remain a second year.

A little work is done in the kitchen garden, and the sister in charge hopes in time to add dairy work.

**Houdeng Aimeries.*

Classe ménagère communale, open three days a week after school hours for 24 girls from the class supérieure of the primary school.

The attendance at this class is given as a reward to the best scholars in the primary school, and is evidently much appreciated.

The teaching is done entirely by the head mistress of the primary school, who has declined the help of a femme de ménage.

The girls are divided into groups of six, who work simultaneously at the different branches.

Less time is given to needlework than in other schools, gardening being sometimes taken instead.

**Morlanwelz.*

École ménagère communale, open five days a week.

The scholars pass on from the primary school at the age of 13. There are at present 36 in the first, 20 in the second year.

The work is under the management of the directress of the primary school, who is assisted by a very able mistress and a femme de ménage.

The girls are divided into three groups. One group works for a week at a time in the kitchen at cookery, washing, ironing and cleaning, while the two groups take needlework.

A great deal was done in this school to diversify the work and exercise the common sense of the girls.

There were excellent collections to illustrate lessons on hygiene, and the children's notebooks were full of practical hints in domestic economy. The mending was excellent.

Morlanwelz.

École ménagère libre, part of a large institution comprising several schools directed by the sisters of the Order de l'enfant Jésus, open five days a week.

There as 50 scholars on the register. They enter at about the age of 13 or 14, and a large proportion stay for the full three years' course. On leaving many find employment as ladies' maids, dressmakers, &c.

Marchienne au Pont.

École ménagère libre, open five days a week.

There are 60 scholars on the register; 38 in the first year.

The course lasts three years, and occasionally girls remain a fourth year. They pass, for the most part, into domestic service.

Schools in Brussels.

Rue de Sans Souci, Ixelles.

Classe ménagère communale, for the children of the primary schools of the neighbourhood.

Ten sets of 24 children attend this school throughout the year, each coming one half day a week.

The premises consist of the ground floor of an ordinary house.

The directress is assisted by two femmes de ménage.

**Rue Locquenhien.*

Classe ménagère communale, for the children of the primary schools of the neighbourhood.

Thirty children come at a time, and stay for a week, five times in the year.

A large quantity of soup is made every day in this school for a neighbouring crèche, and the girls themselves serve it out to the babies.

Rue de l'Eglise, St. Gilles.

1. Classe ménagère libre, in connexion with a large school for giving religious instruction on holidays and after school hours to the children attending the communal schools of the neighbourhood.

The housewifery department, like the catechism classes, is conducted largely by voluntary workers.

There are about 30 scholars in the classe ménagère, chosen from among the most satisfactory girls in the catechism classes.

Each scholar must have at least 10 lessons in each of the five obligatory branches of the course during the year.

2. Classe ménagère libre for adults, *i.e.*, girls over 14, held on Monday.

This class is attended by girls at work in factories, and has been established by the committee of the school as a means of attracting them into the religious classes.

Schools at Antwerp.

**Rue Everaerts.*

Classe ménagère communale, annexed to the primary school, open on two half days a week—Monday and Thursday, the school half-holiday.

This class is attended by 32 girls from the classe supérieure, and is managed by the head mistress of the primary school with one assistant.

This school was one of the very earliest ones, and it has been the model on which most others of this district have been formed.

Rue Moretus.

Classe ménagère communale, annexed to a primary school and worked exactly on the lines of the preceding school.

Orphanage of the Sisters of the Order du Sacré Cœur.

A classe ménagère has just been started in connexion with this institution.

A large number of girls are received at the age of 15, on condition that they remain until they are 21.

The working in small groups in the classe ménagère, by breaking the monotony of their daily life, has a most beneficial effect on their intelligence and character.

The following schools were also mentioned as interesting, but we were unable to visit them :—

Ghent.

Classes ménagères held on Sunday morning for factory girls.

Courtrai Roulers.

Classes ménagères formed on the model of the Antwerp classes for girls working in silk and linen factories.

Wyngene.

Classe ménagère attached to a lace-making school.

We have marked with an asterisk the classes and schools we consider most characteristic.

K. S. BLOCK.
L. BRACKENBURY.

THE FRENCH SYSTEM OF HIGHER PRIMARY SCHOOLS.

"That which the school ought to develop, before all things, in the individuals whom it trains, is, as has often been said, the man himself, that is to say, heart, intelligence, conscience. Nothing could be more true, but, it must never be forgotten, at the same time, that, if the individual is afterwards to be a manual worker, whether in the fields or in the workshop, the first and best safeguard that our schools can give, for the morality of the man, is to create in every scholar an aptitude for, and a liking for, that labour by which he will have to live."—LE BLANC.

INDEX.

A.—*General Summary of the System.*

B.—*Brief Sketch of its growth.*

C.—*Chief Points of its Organisation.*
Length of courses. Differences between higher primary schools and *cours complémentaires.*
Relation of State aid to local expenditure.
Portion of expense borne by locality.
They are central schools for surrounding districts.
Boarding houses, and their fees.
Examination for admission, and conditions of remaining from one year to another.

D.—*Curriculum of the Higher Primary Schools.*
Its "freedom, variety and elasticity."
Industrial, commercial, agricultural sections.
Apportionment of time to each subject, as characteristic of each section.
Travaux manuels.
General in character and not for particular industries.
Time allotted to this subject.
Objects in view.
Drawing and modelling.

E.—*The System of Scholarships.*
Awarded by State, Department, and Commune.
Conditions and method of award.
Amounts, and how much valued by individuals.
Purposes in view and how far fulfilled.
Scholarships at private schools.
Financial conditions of families.
Social status of scholarship holders.
Travelling scholarships.

F.—*Social Class of the Students at the Higher Primary Schools.*
Various considerations which have decided this point.

G.—*The Question of "No Fees" in Higher Primary Schools.*
Probable effects of proposed abolition of the free system.
Reasons for its retention.

H.—*Present Condition and Results of the Higher Primary System.*
Number of scholars.
Certain defects.
Expenditure per head.
After-career of scholars on leaving the schools.
General results of the system upon the French nation.

I.—*Conclusion.*
General remarks upon the system, and the question of its adaptability to English needs.

APPENDIX.

I. Historical Survey of the causes underlying the creation of these schools, and their differentiation from Secondary Schools.

II. Return of the After-Careers of Higher Primary Students.

III. Time-tables of the Higher Primary Schools, compared with those of the "Modern-side" Secondary Schools.

IV. Notes upon the position of Denominational Schools in France.

Analysis of the History of the Movement.

General recognition of the need for some continuation of elementary education.
Its characteristics as necessitated by the needs it has to meet.
Local origin of the schools.
Earliest steps towards State recognition.
1833. Guizot's original plan of higher primary instruction.
Various hindrances to its development, specially—
(*a*) popular misconception of its aims.
and (*b*) competition of lower secondary schools.
1839. A gradual increase of higher primary schools.
1840. Departmental reaction and State repression.
Consequent growth of local educational enterprise under other forms.
1850. State encouragement to these.
1860. Creation of "modern-side" secondary schools.
Essential difference between this and higher primary education.
M. Gréard's clear distinctions between secondary and higher primary education.
Gradual tendency towards a more technical curriculum.
1878. Consequent increased public interest.
1879. Augmentation of State aid.
1880. Commencement of State organisation, beginning with the so-called apprenticeship schools.
Commission Report on (i) the need for increasing their practical character, (ii) preserving variety of curriculum, and (iii) avoiding the rigid uniformity of type that might arise from a completely centralised system.
Highly practical and quasi-technical character of the newer Higher Primary Schools, and their distinction from Secondary.
1881. Free Education Act, including higher primary instruction as part of the education provided by the State.
1886. First complete State organisation and regulations for higher primary schools and courses.
1888. State organisation and regulations of *écoles professionnelles*.
These two categories of higher primary schools and their differences.
The dual inspection.
Difficulty of enforcing the system.
Great variety and increase of higher primary schools.
Defects of the system.
(*a.*) Confusion and overlapping of "Ex-standard" classes and higher primary schools.
Attempts to remedy this.
(*b.*) Lowering of the level of higher primary schools to that of mere 7th Standard schools.
Attempts to remedy this.
(*c.*) Tendency to divert pupils from manual occupations to clerical pursuits.
Attempts to remedy this by new Act.
1892. Creation of a new category of schools to comprise all the distinctly technical schools, and to be called *Écoles Pratiques de Commerce et d'Industrie*.
Reasons for this new category.
Difficulty of enforcing the new classification.
Chief distinguishing features of this new class of schools.
Departmental circular describing them.
They are to replace the lost system of apprenticeship for commerce and industry.
Summary of total provision of higher primary education.
1893. New and final development of legislation for higher primary schools.
Greatly increased amount of practical and technical instruction.
Departmental circular explaining the functions of higher primary schools at the present day.

A.—General Summary.

In France the municipalities have long possessed very considerable powers for dealing with primary education, and they have exercised these powers, for many years past, to supplement the elementary school system by establishing communal schools for the purpose of meeting what is felt to be one of the most crying needs of the present day, viz., the continuation, beyond the elementary stage, and in a *practical* direction, of the education of the cleverest children from the working classes. These schools have now been brought under a State system of higher primary instruction, and are known as *écoles primaires supérieures.*

The ultimate purpose of the French Government in creating a State system for these higher primary schools is to assist the local authorities (by means of substantial central grants for salaries) to establish and maintain out of local rates in every district of the country, public schools with no fees for instruction, which shall place within the reach of every really intelligent child who can afford to postpone wage-earning for two or three years after leaving an elementary school the means of obtaining—

(i.) A continuation and completion of the subjects it has learnt in the elementary schools;

(ii.) A practical acquaintance with such branches of knowledge, literary, scientific, and general, as bear directly on the various occupations in life in someone of which he or she will afterwards be engaged;

(iii.) Such general hand-and-eye training and workshop practice, as will engender habits of manual industry, increase dexterity and develop taste, and at the same time both halve the labours and double the fruits of that necessary apprenticeship (in the true sense of the word) at the workshop, the warehouse, the shop counter, or the counting house, for which it is meant to be not so much an alternative as a preparation.

(iv.) When desired, *instead of* (ii) and (iii), a thorough technical training in one of the industries of the district, corresponding, as far as possible, to a regular practical apprenticeship but with much better instruments and far higher standards of training than are obtainable in the actual "apprenticeship" of ordinary life.*

Being day, not night-schools, and in many cases boarding schools, they are obviously not intended, like the evening continuation schools, for the *great mass* of the rank and file of the working classes, who must have the day hours free for earning wages immediately on leaving the elementary school; but rather for the *élite* of these; the more capable intellectually, and the better

* Schools which provide (iv) have recently been transferred, for central inspection and grant purposes, to a different category from the others and to a different Department, under the title of *écoles pratiques de commerce et d'industrie*; but all have a common origin, and practically the same local administration and organisation.

placed pecuniarily—those, in fact, who will become the *foremen* of industry and commerce—those who, if their skill, inventiveness, and taste are improved, can do more for the industrial, commercial, and agricultural prosperity of the nation than almost any other class of society.

While it is evident that, in point of organisation and objects, these schools correspond in a manner both to our higher grade schools and our municipal technical schools and institutes, inasmuch as they are supplied and largely maintained by local fund and aided by central grants, yet they differ from both of these in many respects, of which the following are the most important:—

(*a.*) No child may be admitted into the higher primary schools unless he or she has obtained the "certificate of primary instruction,"* and has passed a year in the highest standards of the elementary schools; or, in the case of children educated privately, can prove attainments equivalent to both of these requirements. The object of this limitation is to exclude all children who, being intellectually unable to profit by the higher instruction given, would fail to repay to the country, by their improved talent and industry, the value of the public funds that would be spent upon them.†

(*b.*) The central grant is a fixed grant of about five-sevenths of the salaries of the necessary complement of teachers,‡ and does not depend upon the number of pupils in attendance, nor upon the results obtained.§ The local authority can thus initiate new branches of education and maintain them adequately when they see an urgent need or an admirable opening for them in any particular place, even when public appreciation is insufficient to give them an assured basis of support.

(*c.*) These schools are specifically included under the Free Education Act as a part of primary instruction, so that no fees can ever be charged in them for instruction.‖

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* This certificate is given upon a uniform yearly public examination upon the subjects taught in the elementary schools. It is open to children from 11 years of age, and is obtained by about 20 per cent. of all the children who leave the public elementary schools in each year. It exempts the holder from attendance at school, which is otherwise compulsory till the age of 13.

† Some of the best higher grade schools in England now recognise this principle in working out their methods of admission; but the pupils are frequently admitted as early as Standards IV. and V., at which age it is very difficult to be assured that the pupil is specially clever, and worth the greater public expenditure involved in these schools. It should be added, however, that the entrance to an organised science school (*i.e.*, the *top* portion of the higher grade school) is exclusively by examination [*vide* Directory of the Science and Art Department].

‡ As a matter of fact, the whole of the *fixed* salary of the teacher is paid by the State; but the locality is compelled to add to it a sum varying according to the population of the locality, which is supposed to correspond to, and compensate for, the varying expense of living in the various parts of the country.

§ "The Minister of Education insists upon a high standard, but holds that this "standard is better secured by granting money than by withholding it."—(S. A. Robertson on French Primary Schools in the "Practical Teacher" for April, 1896.)

‖ As regards other charges for books, &c., &c., and for the effects of this *gratuité*, *see* below.

(*d.*) The local authority which provides and maintains these schools is the same as that for all ordinary municipal work; and this local authority (the municipal or communal council) may expend out of the local funds as much as it pleases, and in any fashion, upon these schools. There is, moreover, no question of trespassing upon true secondary education, which is fully recognised to be quite different in *character*, as well as in degree, from the instruction given in these higher primary schools;* nor any limitation as to competing with private schools, which the public schools are at full liberty to supplant, if they can do so under the ordinary process of educational competition, through the better quality of the instruction which they provide, aided, of course, by the compulsory absence of fees.

(*e.*) The central grant is only conditioned by a *general* observance of some one or more of the various alternative programmes of study issued by the Education Department. The central office, while in *all* cases requiring both a thorough general education, and a certain amount of manual instruction (and ensuring this through its inspectors), permits also a free choice in the matter of *additional specialising*, whether for pupils intending to enter particular careers, or to meet special local requirements. This specialising may be literary, commercial, industrial, or agricultural; and the choice is entirely in the hands of the local authority, subject only to the approval of the central authority's inspectors, who are specially instructed to observe the varying educational needs peculiar to each locality in which they work.

(*f.*) The schools are put within the reach of, and are actually entered by, all the most intelligent and promising of the poorest class, by means of an extensive and universally applied system of scholarships provided in every school by the State (and often supplemented by the Department [*i.e.*, county] and the Commune).† These scholarships are given to those candidates who, after passing a strict competitive examination can prove that their pecuniary circumstances would render them otherwise unable to continue their education; and, where distance would be an obstacle, the scholarships are tenable at boarding schools and increased proportionately.

* Compare Report of the Royal Commission on Secondary Education, vol. iii., page 46, for similar opinions from the chairman of the Birmingham School Board, in regard to the higher grade schools of that city, which are arranged on a different system of admission to that of all the other English towns, and have thus avoided the overlapping or competition with the local secondary schools, so strongly complained of elsewhere.

† Many of the higher grade schools in England have a system of scholarships; but there is no uniform or universally applicable system of scholarships from local funds; nor indeed can any of the local education rate be legally spent upon the school as one complete whole.

That these schools are widely appreciated, and fulfil a great national need, is shown by the fact that in the last ten years the number of boys in public higher primary schools and classes has increased 15 per cent. and of girls 26 per cent., the numbers being now more than 27,000 and 10,000 respectively. Moreover, of all the boys who leave the elementary schools in possession of their certificate, the per-centage who pass on to the higher primary schools, instead of ceasing their education, has risen from 10 per cent. in 1886 to about 14 per cent. at the present day.

Three main questions suggest themselves for consideration in judging of these free public higher primary schools:—(*a*) the class of children (socially speaking) who frequent them; (*b*) the nature of the education—both intellectual and practical—which is given in them; and (*c*) the actual results which they have produced, and are producing, throughout the country, as visible in the careers and aptitudes of the young men and girls who have passed through them. Do they, as was said of them a few years ago, draw away the youth of France from manual labour or the soil to quill-driving and the counting-house? Or do they, on the other hand, encourage a taste for *practical* occupations, and raise the general level of industry and capacity alike in every department of active life?

As regards (*a*), it appears, from general inquiries, that the social class of the scholars varies very considerably in different localities, and cannot be dealt with in one broad generalisation. It must be answered in connexion with individual schools and towns. On the whole it may be said that in the great majority of towns the pupils belong to the families of the better-paid manual workers, and the lower ranks of the *petits bourgeois*; and in the more rural districts to a rather higher social class.

As regards (*c*), statistics are available, which will be dealt with later in this memorandum, showing conclusively that the present tendency is towards a continued increase in the turn-out of *manual workers* from these schools. It is evident that these results must depend necessarily upon the second point (*b*), the nature of the education given in the schools. But a concise statement on this point can hardly be made: the best means of arriving at a clear idea of it will be to take an historic survey of the various changes through which the system has passed, in the gradual process of evolution which has brought the schools to their present condition and organisation, and then to study the questions of their organisation, and present condition, and results, in the light thus thrown upon them by the history of the causes which have made them what they are now.

B.—Sketch of the Growth of the System.

It is often stated in England that the French educational system is entirely the creation of one central authority, and worked upon one rigid and uniform plan. This, however, is far from being the case.

The higher primary schools, for instance, are essentially the outcome and the expression of local needs, local efforts, local expenditure, and local (and therefore varied) ideas. In one place after another, but especially in the greater cities, the need began to be felt as long ago as the early years of this century for schools which would provide an education higher than that of the ordinary elementary school, but different in character and scope, and especially in duration, from secondary education, whether classical or "modern." These, it may be said, are precisely the same causes which have led to the establishment of the higher grade board schools in some of the larger towns of England. But the French higher primary schools are very different from the latter in many respects, as will be seen on an examination of their history and of their functions.

In order to realise their precise position in the field of educational provision, it is necessary to understand how they have come to be what they now are. Their history is somewhat complicated, as they have passed through many stages and have been altered in this direction and in that by successive legislatures, actuated or driven to unwilling action by the jealousies of other sections in the army of educational workers. The detailed history of the causes underlying this movement* shows that its progress in France has been due to causes very similar to those which have given rise to discussion and even to animosities in England in regard to the establishment of the Higher Grade Board Schools, but that the forces underlying the movement have been sooner taken in hand and directed by the French Government than has been the case with ourselves. From this it has resulted that the gradual growth of new needs has been met by the simultaneously gradual growth of new public schools, so that the State has kept a firm hand upon the direction and character of the supply, and prevented the growth of strong and widespread vested interests whose educational provision may be not altogether adequate to or consonant with the real needs of the district where they exist. At the same time it must be remembered that in dealing with education the State has had a freer hand in France than in England, owing (1) to the fact that private enterprise has never played anything like the same part in education there that it has in this country; (2) to the widespread national feeling that education in all its branches is not a purchasable commodity that can safely be allowed to exist under the ordinary laws of supply and demand, of buying and selling, but rather a very high function of a specially qualified profession; (3) to a general agreement that one of the first duties of the State is to prevent all adulteration of this "necessity of life" as strenuously as in the case of articles of food and medicine, and, therefore, to lay down stringent regulations and require definite qualifications in the case of all attempts at supplying it; and (4) to the absence of charitable bequests for

* *See* Appendix I.

education such as have played and still play a large part in the education of England, especially above the elementary stages.

It is difficult to give a brief summary of the history of the higher primary school system in France without losing sight of some of those many and varied causes underlying its successive changes, which alone explain the true nature of its growth and of its present condition.*

In brief, its history may be said to fall into three stages:—

In the first stage its function was merely a continuation on similar lines of the upper standard work of the elementary school. The idea of special preparation in school for the different walks of life (*i.e.*, for technical instruction in its modern sense) was then unknown, because the need for it was unfelt so long as the old apprenticeship existed and supplied its place.

In the second stage the elementary school had improved its standard and so far extended its scope as to include studies which had formerly fallen outside its curriculum. The higher primary school, therefore, in endeavouring to give a preparation to fit the child for entering on the practical earning of his livelihood had to change its type, and thus gradually created a supply of, and an increasing demand for, some form (still very indefinite and ill understood) of trade instruction.

In the third and present stage of development this trade instruction has itself developed into a highly complex subject, whose characteristics have become an important national question needing special consideration, special treatment, and at last a special Department to deal with it under the name of *technical instruction* as a special and separate branch of education. Thus the function of the true Higher Primary School has become limited to providing an education suitable for the still considerable proportion of ex-elementary scholars who do not require specific trade teaching, but rather a general education on practical lines to develop their faculties and sharpen their dexterities, and to render them ready, quick, and apt in whatever direction employment may open out to them. In fact, its object is to provide a good general primary† education bearing directly on the more practical branches of knowledge, and *of such a character as to be readily assimilated by ex-elementary scholars*, and to be completed within the very limited time that its students are likely to remain at school.‡

Concurrently with these three stages there were the corresponding stages of administrative development and changes of organisation. Thus, in the first stage the schools were unsystematised and sporadic, created in one town and another where exceptional commercial developments called forth new

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* These are given in detail below.

† Using this word in its wide sense, not as equivalent to elementary.

‡ For the official definition of the object and function of higher primary instruction *see* Appendix; of its distinction from secondary education and from technical education, *see* below.

educational needs, but without any recognised system, still more without any attempt at a uniform plan, being, in fact, unrecognised by the State except by occasional and almost unconditioned Treasury grants. In the second stage we see a largely increased provision of the schools and a rapidly widening variety in their scope tending especially in a technical direction, and thus requiring direction and limitation by some central authority, both of which were given as the condition of the grants made to them simultaneously by the Minister of Education and the Minister of Industry and Commerce. The marked features of this stage were dual jurisdiction, undetermined relationship, and unsettled divisions of curriculum and function. Finally, we reach the third stage, in which technical work has found a protector and director in a Technical Instruction Department; and such of the higher primary schools as give an education not strictly technical are classified by the Minister of Education, who defines their functions and codifies their work. But these schools also bow to the tendency of the age, and give a specialised character to portions of their general instruction at an early stage.

As has been said, these schools owe their origin, as part of the public provision for education, to the municipalities of the larger towns, which began to create schools of this type at the beginning of the century in order to supply the urgent needs of their own citizens. At first they were maintained solely by municipal funds, and in France no question seems to have arisen as to whether it is or is not a true function of the municipal council to undertake the provision of higher primary, as previously of elementary, education. There appears to have been no suggestion of the necessity of an *ad hoc* body to be elected solely for this branch of educational work. Nor did it seem anything but a wise and natural expenditure of the rates that they should be devoted in the absence of State provision to a supply of education which was urgently needed in the general interests of the community which contributed the rates.* But by 1850 the State had realised, what M. Guizot had already prophetically declared in 1833, that this branch of educational provision was as much a necessity of the people as was the more elementary grade of education, and it therefore commenced to encourage the movement by various forms of grants in aid.

In the Sixties the schools were for a time threatened with serious rivalry, if not extinction, by the creation of a new branch of the State secondary schools for giving a "modern-side" education in place of the older classical form, which had till then been the only secondary education obtainable,

* In France it is recognised that education of any particular grade, or for any particular portion, of the population, must be considered in the light of its bearing upon the interests of the whole community, and of its indirect effects upon the prosperity and welfare of the whole, rather than in the aspect of a right or claim or privilege or interest of that particular portion of the community for which the education in question is directly provided.

even for business purposes, in the public schools. But it was soon apparent that these modern sides of the secondary schools appealed to a higher social class than that which had frequented the higher primary schools, that their curriculum did not really correspond to the needs of the latter and that there still remained an important section of the community for whom no adequate provision of suitable education existed. Hence, higher primary schools still continued to be founded by municipalities, and were filled with scholars to an extent which showed that the need was a permanent and increasing one. The opening of the "modern-side" schools, however, had served the useful purpose of drawing off those scholars whose wants really lay in the "secondary" direction, and thus bringing out more clearly the special needs which the higher primary schools were called upon and intended to fulfil.* Thus the essentially primary character of the curriculum and the limited time during which the scholars could be induced to remain at school became more emphasized, and also, in many places, the studies were more decidedly specialised as it became more clearly understood that the true function of the schools was the preparation of boys for immediate service in the lower posts of commerce and industry.

It is at this point (between 1865 and 1870) that we find what were practically the first beginnings of public provision for some sort of technical instruction. It grew out of the recognition of the fact that even the lower ranks, both of commerce and of industry, imperatively need a special form of education which must be beyond that given by the elementary school, but quite other than that of the secondary school. It was realised that the curriculum must be at once more limited in duration than that of the secondary school, more capable of assimilation by children of elementary attainments, and more immediately applicable to actual use at the desk, the counter, or the workshop, to which the great mass of its scholars are inevitably bound to go at as early an age as 15 or 16. When these facts were realised the number of these schools rapidly increased, and at the same time they acquired their early name (and the character implied thereby) of *écoles professionnelles*. It is easy to see that this idea, once realised, could not but be strenuously acted upon, and it is not surprising, therefore, to find that the State at once undertook in France the duty of supervising and directing the new system. Its assumption of this duty found expression in the Education Act of 1880, which added to the primary system, established and State-aided under the Act of 1867, the "apprenticeship schools founded by "communes or departments (*i.e.*, by boroughs or counties) for "developing in youths destined for manual occupations the "necessary skill and technical knowledge, and also those schools

* The fundamental differences of function here suggested are dealt with more fully in the Appendix. An interesting definition of the principles of delimitation, by the French Minister of Public Instruction, is given below.

" of *enseignement primaire complémentaire*, which included " courses or classes of '*professionnel*' instruction."*

And when universal free primary education was decreed in the year 1881 these *écoles professionnelles* were included as being an integral part of the primary education system. They were to be supervised by, and to receive grants from, the Minister of Commerce and Industry as well as the Minister of Public Instruction. Thus their organisation suggested the organic connection between primary and technical education, as well as the necessity of combining the latter with a due amount of improved general knowledge. Their curriculum and organisation were not fully laid down until the decree of 1888, which declared the scope of the teaching to be simply (1) a completion of primary instruction, and (2) *professionnel* instruction preparing for either industry or commerce; the latter being given in separate sections of the school, with specialisation, the one in manual instruction, and the other in modern languages and commercial subjects.

But, concurrently with these distinctly *professionnel* schools, certain communes had created and had maintained from communal funds, a number of schools for the use of ex-elementary scholars, with a curriculum of a less distinctly technical type. These schools were designed to give a more literary form of education, suitable for youths entering upon commercial and clerical, rather than industrial, occupations, but were found useful also by students intending to enter the teaching profession and other literary occupations. These schools increased so rapidly in number that, when the great Act of 1886 was passed for reorganising the whole of primary education, these schools were also treated as an integral part of primary education, receiving the name of *écoles primaires supérieures*, in distinction from the *écoles primaires professionnelles* referred to above.

Thus it is from this Act of 1886 (or rather from the explanatory decree of 1887) that the fully organised system of higher primary schools really dates. The details of its organisation will be found in a later portion of this memorandum. At this stage it will suffice to say that the curriculum was declared to be but a *résumé* and a deepening of the elementary school studies; that the normal length of its course was only three years; that there were to be, as a rule, nine hours a week given to general subjects, nine to mathematics and science, four to modern languages, three to drawing, and four to manual work; and that, where it was

* In England the State first admitted the financial claims of technical instruction in 1889, but there are still no State grants nor State inspection for the ex-Standard (sometimes called Higher-Grade) schools, as such, as there are for the elementary schools, except in those cases where they fulfil the Science and Art Department's conditions as Organised Science Schools or Science and Art Classes; and, even then, the educational work of the school, as one complete whole, is never criticised or appraised by the central educational authority of the State; for the lower portion of the school is inspected by the Education Department Inspectors, and the upper part, at wholly different times and on a diverse system, by the Science and Art Department. *See* pages 52–55 of Volume I. of the Report of the Royal Commission on Secondary Education, 1895.

impossible, on account of expense, to establish a separate school for this higher primary instruction, it was permitted to create and to attach to the elementary school a *cours complémentaire*, to be conducted in a separate class-room, but under conditions and regulations similar to those in force in a higher primary school. Perhaps the most important features, from an English point of view, are—(1) the condition that no scholar can be admitted unless he possesses the certificate of elementary studies. This regulation prescribes for entrance a minimum of age and educational attainment, while it also denotes the primary character of the education offered; (2) the distinctly general nature of the course and the prohibition of any specialised instruction before the fourth year; and (3) the prohibition of fees. This puts the higher primary schools within the reach of the great mass of the people, and also makes it difficult for private-venture schools to compete with them. It thus keeps the character of this branch of public education largely under Government control. The popularity of the new system was further assisted by the establishment of scholarships from communal, departmental, and State funds.

As the number of these schools rapidly increased, various defects were found in the system, of which the details and the attempted remedies are discussed in the appendix to this memorandum; but it is noteworthy that at no period after the establishment of the "modern-side" secondary schools does there seem to have been any idea that the higher primary schools were encroaching upon the province of secondary education, or any suggestion that funds destined for primary education, and for the help of ex-elementary scholars, were being wrongly diverted, or that they were being applied to the use of classes of the people which stood in no need of aid. Not that this happy absence of overlapping and of competition was due to any legislative definition or delimitation of the respective provinces of primary and secondary schools; it is rather due to the fact that the French have throughout insisted upon the view that secondary education is intrinsically different in nature from primary, and especially to the fact that public schools for the preparatory and lower stages of secondary education have been fully and specifically provided for, equally with, and simultaneously with, secondary education itself, but in schools quite other than the primary schools. It is also noteworthy that the French have always spoken of the people's schools as primary schools giving primary education, not as "elementary" schools giving "elementary" education. Thus, as the scope of the needs of the people's schools necessarily widened, there was no incongruity between their title and their functions, and nothing to suggest an unwarranted excursion beyond the limits connoted by their name. The schools fell at once into the easy and natural categories of *primaire élémentaire, primaire complémentaire, and primaire supérieure.* Moreover, primary instruction was associated from the first with a definitely

practical training for the lower ranks of commerce and industry; and this circumstance emphasized the fact that the higher primary school, whether its curriculum be technical or general, differs from the secondary school, properly so-called, alike in object, function, and clientèle.

As time went on, however, it was found that to leave the localities complete freedom of choice, without State guidance as to the technical or non-technical character of their higher primary schools, did not result in a provision of technical instruction sufficiently ample and widespread in the opinion of the Government, for the needs of the nation. Moreover, as schools with a literary curriculum were not only cheaper to establish and maintain, but also more attractive to a class of people always eager to "rise" (as they consider it) from manual occupations into other forms of livelihood, it began to be observed that the character of the instruction given in the higher primary schools was drawing youths away from industrial pursuits, and tending to overfill the ranks of candidates for clerkships and other forms of sedentary and non-manual occupations.* There could, of course, be no question that such a development of things would, if continued, be a national disaster of the first magnitude, and it was felt that steps must be taken to lessen the evil. Accordingly, in 1892, the recently created Department of Technical Instruction (a branch of the Ministry of Commerce and Industry) laid down codes and regulations under which large grants, covering salaries and many other expenses, were offered to schools giving definite instruction to ex-elementary scholars in various trades and industries, under the title of "Practical Schools of Commerce and Industry."†

Such of the higher primary schools as possessed the curriculum corresponding to these requirements have been transferred from the jurisdiction of the Education Department to that of the Technical Instruction Department under the above category, and new schools of this type are being opened in various parts of the country.

One would have imagined that this new development would have given the higher primary schools' system a strong impulse to carry still further its original bias towards a strictly non-technical and literary course. But, as a matter of fact, it seems only to have emphasized in the mind of the Minister of Education the need for combining with a good general education the commencement of various forms of manual training, and the mistake, both educational and economic, of maintaining a too purely literary code. But, owing to the creation of the above-named State technical schools, he was free to make the practical or *professionnel* side of the higher primary schools educative and preparatory, rather than, in the strict sense, technical or trade-teaching.

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* *See* below for particulars of this tendency.

† *See* below for the official description of these schools, and for their differentiation from higher primary schools.

Accordingly, a new code was issued in 1893 under which the higher primary system now works. This has given to it a variety and comprehensiveness, and withal an educational value, which it would be difficult to improve upon for the purposes of the higher primary school as now understood.

The chief point of the new code is that it allows every school to be divided into sections—viz., general, commercial, industrial, and agricultural.* All the scholars pass their first year together in one common or general section; after which each chooses the section which he will follow for the remaining three years of the course. The programmes of all the sections have certain subjects in common, and certain other characteristics special to the career for which each respectively gives a preparation. But the latter is designed to be an educative training in the strict sense of the term, and to give no definite instruction in the actual practice of any one trade or occupation.

The details of this new code are considered below; as also the general effects which it is having upon the scholars whom it trains. It is the most recent, and will probably be the most permanent, form of the higher primary school system; and it is pertinent to remark here, as at the commencement of this brief historical sketch, that, though the schools are controlled and regulated, and even staffed, by one Central Education Department, and worked upon one Government code, yet their chief features are the great variety of their standard and character in different places, and the correspondence of their varied courses to the varieties of local needs, local ideas, and local industries or trades. Nevertheless, in spite of their variety, they remain in the truest sense a system of higher primary, and not of secondary, education. They offer a practical education, which can be completed within three years, and a curriculum of studies readily assimilated by the cleverer children of the higher standards of the elementary school, immediately on leaving the latter, without any need for "transition" classes, or for such special preparation as would be required to render them in any real sense capable of profiting by the courses of a true *secondary* school, whether "modern" or "classical."

C.—Chief Points of Organisation.

Having thus briefly surveyed the different stages of evolution through which the higher primary school system has passed, it remains to show the chief points of importance in their organisation, to examine the curricula which they have adopted, as showing the nature of the education which they provide, and to consider the general results that have been secured.

The establishments are of two kinds: higher primary schools and *cours complémentaires*. The latter term is used when the

* Of course only the largest schools maintain all these sections. But every school must declare the section or sections which it maintains, and prepare its time-table accordingly.

classes are attached to an elementary school, the former when the school has a separate building, and a director of its own. The distinctions between these two forms of organisation, and the difficulties that have arisen in connexion with them, are more fully dealt with in the Appendix. In practice the higher primary schools frequently have an elementary school attached to them, or at least a *cours préparatoire*.*

Conditions of creation.

Any commune desirous of founding a higher primary school or a *cours complémentaire*, which shall enjoy State aid, has to make an undertaking with the Minister of Public Instruction to provide, for five years at least, the necessary expenses which are incumbent upon the commune. This aid is liable to be withdrawn if the number of pupils in three consecutive years falls below 15 in each division of a higher primary school and 12 of a *cours complémentaire;* that is to say, a school of four years' course must have 60 scholars, of three years' 45, and of two years' 30, as minimum; while a *cours complémentaire* must have 24 scholars, unless it gives only one year's course, when the minimum is 12. Other points of legislative organisation are given in the Appendix.

Expenditure by the State.

The salaries of the teaching staff, as in the elementary schools, are paid by the State according to a fixed rate, depending on length of service and grade of diploma. But, as in the elementary schools, there are certain obligatory additions to these salaries, varying with the localities, which have to be paid by the communes, as explained above.

Since the expenses of primary and secondary instruction (so far as the latter is provided by municipal funds) are met by the same local financial authority, which contributes to the salaries of both, it sometimes occurs that members of the staff of the public secondary schools are made use of, to give certain lessons in the higher primary schools, as permitted under Article 33*b* of the Act, which says, "Professors of superior or of secondary "education may be delegated to give courses or lessons which "form *part* of the programme of higher primary schools."

Expenditure of the locality.

The commune must pay the salaries of the teachers in charge of the workshops, as also of the foremen or skilled workmen employed for the technical and manual instruction given in the workshops, &c., whether in the commercial, or industrial, or agricultural sections.

The expense of buildings, of repairs, of school furniture and apparatus, &c. falls upon the local resources in the same way as for elementary schools. Thus the local authority has a considerable amount of expenditure to face when deciding to erect

* This is also the usual practice of the so-called Higher Grade Schools that have been established by school boards in England in most of the large towns. But there is this great difference between the two systems: that in France this *cours préparatoire* is added chiefly in the country districts, where the scarcity of other good schools makes the higher primary school to some extent a substitute for a secondary school; whereas in the towns, the higher primary school needs no *cours préparatoire*, since it is the natural top for *all* the elementary schools of the town, and these latter are thus all of them the *cours préparatoires*.

or maintain a higher primary school, though the State may make grants in aid of such expenses to the extent of a quarter of the whole outlay, and assists with money loans, and specially with grants of sets of apparatus.

They are district schools.

One very important point should here be noted; both the *cours complémentaires* and the higher primary schools are, in intention, *écoles régionales;* that is to say, though their creation and maintenance is decided upon and paid for by one commune or town, most of them serve the needs, not only of the town itself, but of all the surrounding districts. Many of them draw pupils from a radius of several leagues, and, though the town itself has borne all the expense of establishing and maintaining the schools, no restrictions are, as a rule, placed upon the district from which scholars are admitted. The Town Council of Paris is an exception; it has recently decided that every commune from which children come in order to attend the Paris schools must contribute a sum of 200 francs* per child from the communal funds towards the Paris municipal treasury. But this practice is not prevalent elsewhere; provincial towns are quite willing that children from neighbouring districts should fill any vacant places that are left after all the town requirements are supplied. It all tends, they say, to the prestige of the town, and also (to quite an appreciable extent in small places) to its general trade and prosperity.

Boarding houses.

As a result of being *écoles régionales*, a large number both of the higher primary schools and of the *cours complémentaires* have boarding houses. These are built by the town at the same time as the rest of the school.† Sometimes they are managed by the town under a salaried *économe* or bursar, and bring in actual profits to the town budget; but in the vast majority of cases, in the provinces at least, they are left to the charge (and profit) of the director of the school. Half the boys' higher primary schools and two-thirds of the girls' have *internats*, *i.e.*, are at least partly boarding schools. This is the case also with half the boys' *cours complémentaires*, and nearly one-third of the girls'; there is thus in France practically a widespread system of municipal boarding schools, with the staff supplied at the expense of the State. But it is believed that the supply is still inadequate. Thus M. Pécaut, in his General Report on Higher Primary Schools in 1895, says:—

"There are often attached to our *écoles primaires supérieures* private boarding establishments, which render great service, in spite of certain imperfections of locality and fittings, which it would be difficult to avoid altogether. But we cannot resist pointing out the comparative dearth of good establishments of this kind, and the lack of variety in those that exist. Whilst ecclesiastical boarding houses are to be seen in almost every

* This represents considerably less than half the actual expenditure per child.

† In many cases the higher primary schools have previously been private-venture schools, taken over at a valuation by the municipality, the original director and staff being often retained.

place of importance, both in town and country districts, which by their variety of charges are adapted to every variety of income, lay boarding houses are comparatively rare, and the fees charged in them vary very little, ranging from 400 to 600 francs; an impossible figure for a number of families from whom we ought to draw our scholars—the smaller landed proprietors and peasant cultivators, for example. In this matter our lay is strikingly inferior to our clerical provision for education."

Fees.

The fees for the boarding houses vary from 16*l.* to 30*l.* per annum; the greater number ranging about 25*l.* For the *externes* or day boys there is also in most schools a system of *études surveillées;* that is to say, pupils may stay at the school beyond the fixed school hours (usually 8 a.m. to 11 a.m., and 1 p.m. to 4 p.m.), under the supervision of the school staff, from 5 to 7 p.m. A charge is made for this in most schools, but not in all, amounting to 2*l.* or 3*l.* a year. In Paris great discussion has arisen upon this point, the progressive members on the council insisting that these charges are contrary to the spirit of the Free Education Act, and tend to place hindrances in the way of the spread of higher primary instruction amongst the working classes. The outlay for books and other requirements varies considerably. In the larger towns this is generally provided by the municipal funds free. No fees may be charged for "instruction"; for the higher primary schools and the *cours complémentaires* are held to be included under the term "public establishments for primary instruction," in which *gratuité* was enforced by the Free Education Act of 1881.

The higher primary school is open to all comers without distinction, who come up to the prescribed standard of knowledge. Children who, having been educated privately, do not possess the elementary certificate are submitted to an examination equivalent to it in the subjects of the upper standards of the elementary school. But, as a matter of fact, about 90 per cent. of these schools are recruited entirely from the public elementary schools; and it is only in those country districts where no means of obtaining any form of secondary education exist within any reasonable distance that the contrary is the case.

Admission to the school.

As regards the standard of admission to the school, the central authority has attempted to raise the general level by various means, and to confine the admission more strictly to the *élite* of the elementary schools, by requiring that no pupil be admitted unless, besides holding the elementary certificate, he has passed a year in the highest standard of the elementary school. In many places there is also an entrance examination, the standard of which is practically decided upon by the local authority, and sometimes considerably raises the standard of the school. And in a few of the largest towns, where the number of candidates is greater than the number of vacancies, this examination comes to be a competitive examination. In Paris there is one simul-

taneous public examination for all the higher primary schools; the successful candidates, *i.e.*, those who pass a certain standard of marks, are ranged in order of merit, and are then called upon (in this order) to choose the school to which they prefer to go, according to the number of vacancies that are available in each. There is also an examination at the end of each quarter, of which the results are sent to the parents; these examinations are a great stimulus to hard work, and assist also in pointing out the pupils who would be unable to profit by a continued stay at the school; these are invariably "advised" to leave.* It is very generally understood, and is carried into practice, that one of the most important duties of the Director is to advise parents for and against the continuance of the children's attendance at the school; as also in the matter of choosing the particular section (commercial, industrial, &c.) which he shall enter. The director's opinion is invariably (and, indeed, statutorily) decisive on the former point, besides being very generally paramount as to the latter.

Continuance at school.

The school is divided into "years" of study; and promotions into each division or "year" take place only once in 12 months. For this purpose there is an annual examination of a very searching nature, called *examen du passage;* and it is only upon passing this examination that a pupil is moved into the next "year." Anyone failing to pass has either to leave or to *redoubler, i.e.*, to stay another year in the division in which he has already been working. This occurs in a great number of cases, especially at the end of the first "year."

This annual examination and its consequences is one of the most striking features of the system, and admirably prevents any waste of public funds and of teacher's energy in vain attempts to educate children who are not capable enough to profit by their opportunities.

Mention must also be made of the important part played in the actual management of each school by its *Comité de Patronage.* The composition of each committee of managers is fixed by the Education Department on the nomination of its local representative. The director or directress of the school is an *ex officio* member, as also is the primary inspector of the district, and the chief inspector of the province. In the case of girls' schools, there must be a certain number of ladies on the Committee. The Committee nominates its own president and secretary; it meets at least twice in each year, at the summons of the president, and in special cases when convened by the president or by the provincial inspector. At its ordinary meetings it nominates a subcommittee to visit the school at least once a month, and report to the Committee at the next meeting. The Committee is entrusted with the general supervision of the schools, and of all that pertains to its efficiency and the interests of the pupils. It

* There is no average attendance grant to tempt the managers or teachers to retain scholars who are getting no adequate benefit from the school.

takes the latter under its patronage, and endeavours to settle them in suitable occupations at the end of their school course. The pupils holding State scholarships are especially under the care of the Committee.* It further deals with all matters of school requisites and furniture, and decides on the measures to be taken to adapt the *special* instruction to the local requirements, industries, manufactures, agricultural, or other occupations. For this purpose all prominent business men in the locality are nominated on these committees.

Further legislative details on these and other points are given on pages 352–356 and 358–361 of the Appendix.

D.—Curriculum.

Curriculum. As regards the nature of the education given in the higher primary schools, a fairly complete idea can be obtained by Its variety. studying the official *Programme d'Études.* These programmes are on sale everywhere for a few pence, in the form of small 8vo pamphlets of about 80 pages. They give full details as to condition of admission, the general objects of the school course, and the regulations and amounts of scholarships.†

It must be remembered that these programmes, compiled by the Education Department, are in general terms; they prescribe no special books, and are purposely framed to admit of variety of Its freedom. application. Thus M. Brunel says:—"The syllabus of studies "has not the same absolute immutable character as a law. It is "merely a guide, a detailed set of suggestions. To follow it in its Its elasticity. "entirety would always be difficult, often impossible, and some-"times dangerous."‡ Nor does the State attempt to scale the actual results attained by the children at the end of each year; it is content to watch the methods of instruction and to note any particular needs of improvement.§ Moreover, the degree to which the *programme* is enforced, even in the matter of the number of hours given to each subject per week, depends very largely in Inspection. practice upon the discretion of the inspectors. The inspection by the State is intended merely for the purpose of seeing that the general directions of the Department are faithfully adhered to, and the general conditions adequately fulfilled under which the State undertakes to pay the salaries of the staff. The suggestion that the inspector might conceivably gauge the actual results in the case of individual scholars, and proportion the State aid to the quantum of successes, is looked upon in France as a system quite impossible of proper application, and absolutely

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* *See* "Elementary Education in France," Simpkin, Marshall, & Co., London, 1891, page 85.

† The time-table given in the Appendix is taken from this *Programme d'Études.*

‡ Annuaire de l'Enseignement Primaire, p. 403.

§ The idea of any form of payment according to the number of subjects taught has never been put forward in France; and any description of it, even in the present modified form obtaining in England, is received by French educationists with outspoken amazement, not to say horror.

ruinous in its effects upon the teaching. But the inspectors are specially instructed to take note of the particular needs of each locality, and to see that they are reflected in the character of the teaching given in the schools; and there seems to be a general consensus of opinion amongst the teachers that every reasonable freedom is permitted for special cases; while, for ordinary circumstances, the departmental programme is allowed on all hands to be admirably conceived as a whole, and to admit of but few adverse criticisms in points of detail.

As we have seen, each school is divided into classes according to "years," and the courses of study are also regulated in the same way.

The first year's course is the same for all pupils who enter the school; no specialisation being permitted till the commencement of the second year.* It is then that the student decides, generally under the advice of the director, the particular section in which he will pursue his course. The particular characteristics of each of the sections (general, commercial, industrial, and agricultural) appear in the number of hours allotted to the different subjects in each section respectively.† There are six subjects, however, which do not vary at all, being considered to represent the basis of *all* instruction, and to be, therefore, necessary to every section alike. Thus morals, handwriting, history, civic instruction, gymnastics, and singing are taught one hour a week, each, both to boys and girls, in all three years, and in all the sections. And boys have two hours, and girls one hour, for physics and chemistry in all three years in all sections. Elementary notions of common law and political economy are taught one hour a week in the third year of each section both to boys and girls.

General subjects.

The other subjects of instruction vary considerably in the different sections.

Thus, for modern languages, the general section has three hours a week in all three years both for girls and boys; while in the commercial section this is raised to four hours for both; and in the industrial section it disappears entirely for boys, being replaced by additional mathematics, science, and manual work. The girls' industrial section, however, retains three hours a week for modern languages, and does not increase the mathematics.

Characteristics of each section.

Similarly, drawing and modelling, both for boys and girls, is given four and a half hours a week in the industrial section, three hours in the general section, and only one and a half in the commercial section. Both the commercial and industrial

* Compare report of Liverpool Technical Instruction Committee for 1895. "If "there is one thing that has come out more clearly than the rest by the experience "gained in the course of the work of the past five years, it is that a satisfactory "system of technical instruction can only be established on the basis of a good "previous general education . . . . Institutions which were founded to give "a strictly technical education have had in many cases to prepare students by a "general preliminary training to take proper advantage of special technical "teaching."

† For the complete time-table *see* Appendix below.

section make up for their increase of special subjects by reducing their French language and literature.

The general section.

Each section has of course its own specialities. The chief characteristic of the *General Section* is the amount of time given to French language and literature, from three to five hours a week for boys and girls alike. It is from this section that the normal colleges are largely recruited and "general culture" is considered its main purpose. As to its fulfilment of this purpose, opinions differ. M. Pécaut, one of the leading educational authorities of the day, urges against it, after careful investigation, the same objections that are so constantly urged in England against courses of a similar nature, viz., that no real spirit of culture is given, but merely a superficial facility in reading, and an acquaintance with the mechanism rather than with the spirit of language and literature. He says:—"What is it that these "schools lack? Instruction abounds; but culture is almost "absent; one cannot but feel distinctly anxious at the sight of "such a multiplicity of subjects upon one time-table; what link "is there to connect them one with another in the students' "minds; what are the central ideas around which they are "grasped? This defect is especially noticeable in the rapidly "lessening importance attached to the reading of our great "writers, particularly of the poets. It seems to me that daily "intercourse with the great masters of our mother tongue, "even if it were limited to half an hour, should represent the "*humanities* in primary education; and these would tend to "cultivate not one particular faculty, as do the other items of "the programme, but the whole mind, and so give a tone to the "teaching. Enough thought is not given to this point. Grammar, "spelling, and French composition, taught each one separately, "consume whole hours, of which a small portion at every lesson "might (with actual advantages to the lesson) be devoted to "*reading*, with careful and interesting explanations as to the "broader aspect of the subject matter of what is read. To my "mind it would be impossible to give too much care and "attention to this question of the diversity and incoherence of "the many subjects on our time-tables; their ill-regulated "multiplicity fatigues the mind and does not form it. I would "repeat that where there is no one regulating connecting study "there can be no true education."

The industrial section.

The Industrial Section is naturally characterised by more mathematics and technical drawing, and also by its *travaux manuels*, which take six hours a week, as contrasted with two hours in the commercial section. This subject will be dealt with more fully hereafter.

The commercial section.

The characteristics of the Commercial Section are, as would be expected, book-keeping and languages; the former being represented by three hours a week, as compared with one hour in the other sections; and the latter by four hours a week. There is also an additional hour for commercial geography.

The Agricultural Section, in its turn, has no modern languages, very little drawing, and is stronger in the natural sciences and in manual occupations bearing upon soil culture. It is of more recent foundation than the others, and is destined to play a great part in the technical education of the French agriculturist, especially while true "technical" classes in agriculture are still so rare. M. Le Blanc, one of the chief authorities upon agricultural education in France, thus describes* this portion of the higher primary system :— The agricultural section.

"When Jules Ferry reorganised higher primary teaching he characterised it as follows :—'On one hand we want the teaching to remain elementary, and on the other hand we wish it to be *professionnel.*' The legislator of 1889 has defined exactly the meaning of this word *professionnel.* It must not be limited to so-called technical teaching as applied especially to artizans or employés in trade or business; it must also be applied to agricultural education, which was not specified in the first proposal mooted in the Chamber. "We have corrected," said the mover of the motion in the Senate,† 'a slip which occurred when the first draft was written. . . . . Instead of saying "technical teaching," we now say "agricultural, industrial, and commercial teaching." We have thus replied to a perfect deluge of criticisms, by giving to agricultural education in our schools the place which it ought to hold in a country which, if it has 12 million artizans, has 22 million agriculturists.' . . . . To insure the success of the majority of our higher primary schools, it is necessary that *professionnel* teaching shall not be restricted to trades which are only carried on in great centres; and so, in preparing the rules for public administration on the 21st of January 1893, the special committee made a special item of agricultural education, both practical and theoretical. It provided also for the inauguration of an agricultural section which was to be a special characteristic of the higher primary schools in rural districts. . . . . The field labourer is not deficient in either intelligence, energy, or love of work; what he lacks is knowledge of the laws of nature. The agricultural course of the *école primaire supérieure*, therefore, makes it its special aim to teach these laws, and especially to instil into the minds of its pupils scientific notions which they could never acquire at home. To attain this end lessons on the theory of natural and physical sciences, or even on agricultural sciences, are not sufficient. Experiment must give the students a substantial grounding, and their knowledge must be completed by further experiments intelligently carried out by themselves. . . . . The practical work must be of two kinds, that which would be done out of doors in fine weather, especially in the right season, and that which would be done indoors in the winter or on

* L'Enseignement Agricole, p. 70, Librairie Larousse.
† Journal Officiel, June 18, 1889.—Speech of M. Combes.

rainy days. A certain number of these exercises in practical agriculture are included in the workshop routine, and have the effect of giving young men a liking for their work, and instilling habits of regularity in essential matters. They also make them capable of executing a number of minor repairs, and doing little pieces of useful work which would occupy them at home during bad weather."

By way of distinction, the same writer gives the following description of the agricultural courses in the more technical schools called "*Écoles Pratiques*":—

"The *travaux manuels* connected strictly with agriculture would include, firstly, practical work in market gardening and arboriculture, carried out entirely by the students; and, secondly, work in the demonstrating fields. Practical experiments dealing especially with the chemistry of agriculture are indispensable. These are superintended by the demonstrator and carried out by the students. They include the composition of soils, of manures, and also of vegetables and plants generally. . . . . This work is carried out chiefly in winter time; demonstrations of plant cultures are prepared and put in hand at the end of the winter, and continued afterwards without involving any appreciable expenditure of time, and thus during the summer the apportioned time can be entirely given to agricultural work in the strict sense of the term."

Girls' curriculum.

For girls, the programme of subjects as regards the detailed curriculum differs but little from that of the boys. They are given one hour a week in the third year for domestic economy, and the practical side of this subject forms an important part of their *travaux manuels*. In the industrial, commercial, and agricultural section the curriculum for girls is purposely left to be decided according to the needs of each locality. Thus the departmental instructions say:—"It will be very necessary to "take local needs into consideration for the determination of this "supplementary programme, and for fixing the extra hours of "teaching, so that the entry of pupils into industrial or commer-"cial schools of the district may be made as easy as possible."

Manual occupation.

But perhaps the most interesting, and certainly the most controversial, question in the curriculum of the higher primary schools is that of the *travaux manuels*. There is no doubt that in the intention of the Education Department the higher primary schools are not to teach, or even to prepare for, *any one particular trade*. Thus M. Brunel, Director of Primary Instruction for the Northern Departments, says:—"The general "character of the teaching which obtains in higher primary "schools applies equally in the matter of the manual work in "spite of the varied occupations dealt with. The object of the "manual work is, first, to educate the eye and hand. In "applying this education there is a gradual tendency towards "a more special object. But the special sections do not prepare "either artizans, or commercial clerks, or agriculturists; but "find out and develop in each student the aptitude to become

General in character.

" some one of these. They give the students an inclination, so to " speak; they put them at the point of entrance into the calling " in which they will have to pass their lives, having furnished " them with a better provision for life's journey."* And M. Cohendy makes a similar statement:—

Not a rade training.

"It would be quite wrong to include as a part of true technical instruction in France those schools called *écoles d'enseignement primaire supérieur* which, although they may be called or have at least the appearance of being *écoles professionnelles*, do not aim exclusively at the practical preparation of pupils for industrial or commercial occupations. Many of the schools called *écoles professionnelles* aim rather at developing the general knowledge necessary for any and every career, than the special study for one definite profession. One example of this is the *École Martinière* at Lyons for boys. Such schools as these do not form part of the national provision for technical education properly so called. And the same is true of numerous *écoles primaires supérieures* in Paris and in the provinces; the pupils of these schools chiefly go to fill minor situations in commerce, industry, and public and private offices. The comparatively smal portion of time allotted in these schools to manual instruction or to book-keeping cannot be considered as otherwise than an integral portion of a good general education."†

When the *travaux manuels*, or any other part of the school course, give instruction in the definite practice of any particular industry, the school ought, according to the statutes, to be classed as an *école pratique d'industrie*, and placed under the Minister of Technical Instruction,‡ and similarly also if it teaches the practice of any special commercial business.

So that it is in the programme of the *travaux manuels* that the general character of the instruction given in higher primary schools (properly so called) is perhaps most apparent. In carrying out the programme considerable variety of application is possible, and, in fact, exists; but there are a certain number of recognised models, both in woodwork and ironwork, which are practically in universal use, and serve sufficiently to de-

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* Annuaire for 1894, p. 404.

† Dictionnaire d'Économie Politique, p. 885.

‡ In England, on the other hand, no specific trade instruction may be aided by public funds even in so-called Technical Schools. Compare the definition of technical instruction as admissible for State aid in English technical schools and classes in the Technical Instruction Act of 1889, § 8. "The expression 'technical instruction' " shall mean instruction in the principles of science and art applicable to industries, " and in the application of special branches of science and art to specific industries " or employments. It shall not include teaching the practice of any trade, or " industry, or employment, but, save as aforesaid, shall include instruction in the " branches of science and art with respect to which grants are for the time being " made by the Department of Science and Art, and any other form of instruction " (including modern languages and commercial and agricultural subjects), which " may for the time being be sanctioned by that Department by a Minute laid before " Parliament and made on the representation of a local authority that such a form " of instruction is required by the circumstances of its district. . . . . " The expression 'manual instruction' shall mean instruction in the use of tools, " processes of agriculture, and modelling in clay, wood, or other material."

monstrate the *general* course of the study adopted. Moreover, the fact that every section alike, general, and commercial, and industrial, is put through the same course of *travaux manuels* conclusively shows that no specialisation or trade-apprenticeship is intended or attempted. And though the industrial section has six hours a week for *travaux manuels*, and the commercial section only two, and the general section four, the same curriculum is required in each, the special directions for the special sections being simply as follows :—" For the commercial section the pro-" gramme is to be confined to the most usual and elementary " exercises. For the industrial and agricultural sections the " programme is to be the same as in the general section, but " covering rather more ground."

Workshop necessary.

By Article 39 of the Decree of December 1893 (the latest Regulations for the organisation of these schools) every higher primary school and every *cours complémentaire* must have a workshop, and every pupil is put through the wood course as well as the iron course. And the object always to be held in view is to develop skilfulness of hand and eye, and general acquaintance with the use of tools and with the properties of wood and iron, in every child before leaving the school, whatever his vocation of life may be ; there is to be no attempt to simulate a genuine apprenticeship. Thus M. Le Blanc says :—" L'en-" seignement manuel doit être avant tout éducatif, il ne peut " prétendre, on ne saurait trop le redire, à préparer, même de " loin, de futurs ouvriers pour le bois ou le fer."

The general type of the manual courses in higher primary schools can be seen worked out on an unusually perfect scale in the programme of *travaux manuels* drawn up for the Paris higher primary schools by a commission appointed for the purpose. This programme is given with every detail and excellent illustrations at the close of M. Duplan's publication upon the higher primary schools of Paris published in 1891,* where it occupies some 50 quarto pages. Mr. Llewellyn Smith says of this scheme, " Though capable of improvement in detail, " it possesses the merit of being a real system with an educa-" tive idea behind it."† A study of this scheme will make it abundantly evident that no distinct trade preparation is contemplated, even in the Industrial section of the schools.

Drawing and modelling.

The drawing and modelling courses are in general the same for each section ; the industrial section only adds working models of simple machinery made from sketches and scale drawings ; and in the commercial and agricultural sections some additional scale drawing is given. So that in this subject, too, the student is not intended to specialise. Thus M. Le Blanc says‡ :—

" The *école primaire supérieure*, and even the *école profes-sionnelle*, does not prepare draughtsmen ; industry provides

* L'Enseignement Primaire Public à Paris. Vol. II. Paris. Imprimerie Chaix, Rue Bergère 20. 1891.

† Record of Technical and Secondary Education, April 1893.

‡ Enseignement Manuel, p. 53.

herself with these by other means. It educates the prospective working man so that he shall know both how to read and how to execute drawings of the kind generally used in workshops; but it does not turn out skilled draughtsmen, such as are produced in architects' studios."

At the same time exceptions may be made for local requirements. Thus M. Brunel says* :—

"The elasticity of the organisation of higher primary education leaves room for innovations necessitated by local needs. Thus, in one of our *écoles supérieures* for girls in the north, we inaugurated a course of industrial drawing intended to prepare artists whose talent would enable them to find assured employment in the manufacture of textile fabrics."

It should be added that there is an important note in the official programme of the *travaux manuels* which requires every exercise to be done after a sketch and scale drawing, a point which is held of great importance in fixing the *educative* value of all woodwork training as apart from mere carpenter's dexterity.

E.—The Scholarship System.

Scholarship system.

An essential part of the higher primary school system in France is the institution of scholarships. These are given both by the State, the department, and the commune.

Up to 1887 the nomination to State scholarships was in the hands of the Minister of Public Instruction. In that year decentralisation was introduced, "with excellent results,"† and the right of nomination was given to the prefect, who is the local representative in each place of the central civil administrative authority.

State, department, commune.

The State gives scholarships of three kinds :—

(*a*) *d'internat*, to cover or partially cover the expenses of pupils in boarding schools.

(*b*) *familiales*, to pay for boarding out the scholar in a private family, when his home is at a long distance from the school, and the latter has no boarding-house.

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* Annuaire for 1894, p. 404.

† M. Armagnac, in Fascicule No. 10 of the *Musée Pédagogique*, says :—

"Up to 1887 the work of awarding scholarships was done at the Central Education Office. The scholars were appointed by a ministerial order issued after an inspection of the lists of candidates drawn up by each department (*i.e.*, county) in order of merit after a competitive examination, and after consideration of careful memoranda upon each candidate's circumstances. Subsequently the *Conseil Supérieur*, on the suggestion of the Director of Primary Instruction, decided that it would be preferable to have a system of decentralisation, which would more closely interest the local educational authorities in making a good and equitable award of the scholarships. The appointment of the scholars was then entrusted to the prefect; it was made upon the nomination of the inspector, sanctioned by the council of the department. This system is in force now, and the attempt at decentralisation seems to have been favourably received by the public as well as by the authorities who were entrusted with carrying it out."

(*c*) *d'entretien*, to pay the parents for the scholar's food, clothes, travelling expenses, &c., and to help towards making good the sacrifice of his wages while he is kept at school.

The sum set apart for these scholarships in the annual budget of the Minister of Public Instruction varies for each department, according to their respective populations and to the number of higher primary schools which they maintain; it is calculated every five years, following upon the quinquennial census. A movement is on foot to make these amounts proportionate to population only; so that the lack of public schools in any locality may not prejudice the chances of poor children in that locality from obtaining free higher primary instruction.*

The scholarships are conferred by the prefect of the department, on the nomination of the educational inspector, after approval of the "department" (county) council.

Method of examination and award.

Public examinations are held every year in the chief town of each department for testing the intellectual capacities of the candidates, who must be not less than 12 and not more than 15 years of age, and must possess the *certificat d'études primaires*; and the scholarships are subsequently awarded after careful consideration of three points:—

(*a*.) The results of the examination in order of merit, and the intellectual capability of the candidate to make good use of his opportunities at the school.

(*b*.) Any services rendered to the State by the parents.

(*c*.) The pecuniary circumstances, size of family, and actual needs of the candidate; all of which must be stated with the fullest details in the application made by the parent or guardian, and registered on his "*dossier*," or file.

Part scholarships are also given by the State—a half, a quarter, &c.—and these may be supplemented by county or municipal scholarships, up to, but not exceeding, the original total of the scholarship.

This practice of dividing scholarships has been adversely criticised: it can only be properly exercised with great care; and it has been decided that these fractional scholarships must not be given unless the Administration is assured that the parents are in a position to support the remainder of the charges.

Thus M. Armagnac says in this connexion:—

"A sum of 250 francs besides the cost of the whole or a part of a clothing outfit frequently means a very heavy expense for

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* An Act of 1885 had revived an earlier statute by which every father having more than six children could claim, of right, for one of his children, a State scholarship in a secondary school, or a higher primary school, or a technical school, limited, of course, to necessitous families, and to children who passed the scholarship examination; and 400,000 francs were allotted yearly in equal portions for secondary and for technical education scholarships. But it was soon found that this grant would prove too great a burden to the State, and it was repealed in favour of the arrangements now in force, by which scholarships are given solely upon competitive examination and are limited by the credits allowed each year in the budget of the Minister of Public Instruction.

the families of very modest means from which our higher primary schools are mainly recruited. And we must be careful that a parent's desire to give a good education to a child, and to profit by the opportunity offered by the scholarship, shall not impose on the whole family sacrifices out of proportion to the resources which they possess; and, on the other hand, that no parent shall find himself compelled to resign a scholarship fairly gained by his child because he would ruin himself in the effort to make up the necessary remainder."

The national scholarships are tenable for three years, with possible extension to a fourth year.

The examination is the same for all candidates, without reference to age: an arrangement which is severely criticised as involving an unfair competition between ages so widely differing as 12 and 15 years. The Government have twice asked for suggestions for a better system from the prefects and from the inspectors throughout the country; and the change most favoured is an arrangement of three divisions of examination according to years of age; but opinion is still too divided to admit of final decision.

As a rule, successful candidates are placed in schools in the Department where their families reside, if it possesses a higher primary school; but exceptions may be made for special reasons, and this is very frequently done for entering schools with agricultural sections, which are not yet widely distributed.

If there are several higher primary schools in one Department, the scholars are distributed amongst them upon the advice of the inspectors and the departmental (*i.e.*, county) council.

Until 1891 the first 40 candidates on the list in order of merit were given scholarships at one of the three great *national* central higher primary schools (Armentières, Vierzon, and Voiron), but these are now given upon a special examination.

Continuance or extension of a scholarship.

Every year, in the month of July, all scholarship holders are examined in the subjects which they have studied during the previous year; if successful, the scholarship is continued for another period of 12 months; if the scholar fails to satisfy the examiners, the scholarship is forfeited.

Scholarships to secondary schools.

Exceptionally clever scholarship-holders under 16 years of age may be transferred to *secondary* schools or colleges, with continuance of their scholarship, but this does not often occur. In 1888, 22 picked scholars from the Paris higher primary schools were thus transferred, by way of experiment, to the Lycée Charlemagne; but half were shortly withdrawn by their parents, who, as the "Annuaire" pointedly says, "se demandaient "ce que feraient leurs fils, une fois bacheliers," feeling probably that they would be financially unable to pursue the career thus opened to them.*

* Several students (other than scholarship-holders) of the higher primary schools pass out into secondary schools every year (*see* Appendix II.); but it has not yet come to be considered in France as at all an essential portion of the

A *bourse d'internat* granted by the State is equal in amount to the sum that is charged in the particular school to the paying scholars, but it may never exceed 500 francs (about 20*l.*) per annum, including *all* extras.

Amounts of scholarship.

The *bourses familiales* are of 500 francs; and the *bourses d'entretien* vary from 100 to 400 francs.

Grants for clothing outfits are also made to necessitous candidates, up to 300 francs (12 guineas) for the first year, and 100 francs (4 guineas) for subsequent years.

Scholarship holders may also be given supplementary grants, not exceeding 25 francs a year, for *fourniture classique, i.e.*, stationery, drawing instruments, books, and other school requisites.

The 594 boys and 320 girls to whom scholarships were awarded in 1894 were thus distributed:—

Girls.	Boys.	Schools in which Scholarships were held.
283	454	écoles primaires supérieures proprement dites.
10	45	écoles primaires supérieures professionnelles.
105	89	cours complémentaires.
12	6	établissements privés.

Thus the immense majority of scholarships are held in *public schools*, while a few are held in private establishments specially designated by the Minister for the purpose, on account of the absence of suitable public schools in certain localities. The history of this difficult question of allowing scholarships out of public funds to be tenable in private schools may be summarised as follows*:—

Scholarships at private schools.

In the years when the first original credits were made in the Department of Public Instruction for scholarship purposes, *public* higher primary schools were not yet numerous, especially those for girls; several departments, some large tracts of country, possessed none. Even now there are 12 departments having none for boys, and 41 having none for girls; though every department has now a *cours complémentaire* for boys,

functions of a free higher primary school that it should prepare boys for a secondary education, or furnish a rung in the "educational ladder from the gutter to the university." This is more fitly done by scholarships tenable in the lower forms of secondary schools. It is maintained that children who have commenced their education in the public elementary schools must enter the secondary school *before* they have completed the elementary school course, which is supposed to be complete in itself and to be finished within about six years from its commencement. In fact, the bifurcation from primary into secondary must be made, and *the necessary groundwork of secondary commenced*, at an earlier age than 12 or 13. Some of the Swiss cantons wisely make the close of the child's 10th year the period at which he enters upon the particular course of higher education which he will pursue, if his parents are not content with the possibilities of the primary and higher primary system.

* *Vide* Government Report on Scholarships in the *Musée Pédagogique* series.

and there are only 23 which have none for girls. Under these circumstances the Administration felt constrained to accept the offers made to it by directors and directresses of private schools to admit holders of public scholarships.

Moreover, by Article 169 of the Decree of 18th January 1887, private establishments for higher primary instruction were entitled to receive holders of national scholarships on the same conditions as public establishments, if they fulfilled all the conditions (as to staff, equipment, and curriculum) required of the latter, and if they submitted to State inspection; and it is under this clause that scholarship holders are still admitted into a few private schools. But the decision of the Council of State of 19th July 1888, that communes have not the right to *subventionner* private schools, imports a considerable difficulty into the question of public scholarships at private schools. For, as M. Armagnac says, in his official report on this subject, "If the "State decides that communes have not the right to enter in their "budgets under the head of permissive expenditure any grants "to private schools, as being expenses contrary to the law, it "is inadmissible that the credits allotted by the State to "the county administration for the purposes of the national "scholarships should follow a similar destination, *i.e.*, should be "employed to *subventionner*, under the form of scholarships, "any private establishments."

Hence it seems certain that scholarships tenable at private establishments will soon disappear; and by the law, wherever the local civil administration *can* place scholarship-holders in public establishments, it is bound to do so. It will only be in exceptional cases, and in counties where no public higher primary schools or classes exist, that the placing of national scholarship-holders in private establishments will be permitted; and as we have seen, in the year 1894 only six boys and twelve girls out of a total of 914 were placed in private establishments.*

As regards the proportion of these national scholarship-holders throughout the country, and the total sums thus spent by the State (including the scholarships at the three great national central higher primary schools), we find that in 1890, out of the 29,473 boys in higher primary schools and *cours complémentaires* together, 1,385, or 4·7 per cent., held scholarships; and of 11,099 girls, 754, or 6·7 per cent., held scholarships. These were by no means all full scholarships.

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* It may be noted here, however, that the Budget of the Paris Municipality for 1894, which is curiously independent of State law, contained the following items:—"Bourses "d'externes dans diverses établissements libres et laiques d'enseignement primaire "300,000 frcs. Bourses d'externes et de demi-pensionnaires dans divers établissements libres et laiques d'enseignement primaire supérieur ou professionnel de "jeunes filles 17,300 frcs." And this in spite of the heavy expenditure by this municipality upon their own establishments for higher primary instruction both general and *professionnel* described below.

In the same year, 1890, the holders of State scholarships were distributed as follows:—

Boys.		Écoles nationales professionnelles.	Écoles primaires supérieures.	Cours complémentaires.	Totals.
Board and residence scholarships	Whole	73	334	23	430
	Three-quarters	5	151	9	165
	Half	11	215	20	246
Boarding out scholarships	Whole	2	53	1	56
	Three-quarters	—	27	5	32
	Half	—	66	16	82
Scholarships of	100 francs	—	72	10	82
	200 „	—	140	19	159
	300 „	—	64	6	70
	400 „	—	48	15	63
Total number of boys holding scholarships.		91	1,170	124	1,385

Girls.		Écoles nationales professionnelles.	Écoles primaires supérieures.	Cours complémentaires.	Totals.
Board and residence scholarships	Whole	—	117	43	160
	Three-quarters	—	64	21	85
	Half	—	82	58	140
Boarding-out scholarships	Whole	—	50	4	54
	Three-quarters	—	19	2	21
	Half	—	44	6	50
Scholarships of	100 francs	—	25	24	49
	200 „	—	76	24	100
	300 „	—	38	5	43
	400 „	—	46	6	52
Total number of girls holding scholarships.		—	561	193	754
Grand total, boys and girls		91	1,731	317	2,139

In addition to these there were of course the scholarships given by the departments or counties and by the municipalities, some of the latter being most generous. Thus in Paris in 1894, where there were some 2,700 boys in the *écoles primaires supérieures*, there were 103 enjoying scholarships or portions of scholarships amounting to 1,700*l.*; and for the two *écoles primaires supérieures* for girls, containing 700 pupils, nearly 200*l.* was allotted. And at the one *boarding* higher primary school (l'Ecole Jean Baptiste Say) there were 46 boys enjoying scholarships or portions of scholarships amounting to 1,350*l.*

Paris system of awarding scholarships.

The manner of procedure for scholarship examinations in Paris is interesting; it is generally admitted to be highly effective in attaining the objects aimed at, though it is occasionally said that interest in certain quarters or acquaintanceship with individuals in authority have too much effect in influencing the formation of the final list of selected candidates. The procedure is as follows: Candidates must enter their names at various specified centres—usually at the higher primary schools themselves—giving certain details of information as explained above. On the appointed day the examination is held, and the results are subsequently given in a list arranged in order of merit. All who have obtained a certain minimum of marks, or all who are placed above a certain number on the list, are then examined, in the list order, as to income, size of family, &c., &c., and the most necessitous are then selected; and these, arranged in the original examination order of merit, are permitted to choose the school at which they wish to hold the scholarship. The scholarships are thus given as a result of a strictly competitive examination, and also according to an absolute standard of capacity; but scholars, whose families have been able to pay for expensive private coaching in order to secure a high place on the list, do not oust the more necessitous competitors. The inquiry into private means is conducted by communal officials, and no dislike seems to be felt at this "inquisition," in spite of the general outcry raised recently against the possibility of somewhat similar measures being required for the proposed income tax.

Only given to the more necessitous families.

Neither in Paris nor in any of the towns does one find any sort of social stigma attaching in the school to the scholarship-holders. They mix with the rest of the school without any kind of distinction; if anything, it adds to their prestige, and they are "marked" by their scholarship as being specially able and industrious.

Status of scholarship holders.

So much is this the case that M. Armagnac states that many directors of schools are very anxious for scholarship-holders to be admitted to their schools, as assuring them of a supply of pupils who are certain to do them credit. And it is generally admitted that the scholarships have done much to raise the general level of the teaching in many of the higher primary schools. This is but natural, for the successful candidates are only appointed after a succession of tests which eliminate all but the exceptionally able. In the first written examination many are excluded; and in the second oral examination many more, and of those that are left it is only the best, intellectually, who are finally chosen. So that it is said that "the result of this selection is that, nearly "everywhere and nearly always, the scholarship-holders of "*enseignement primaire supérieure* are highly gifted, in-"telligent, hard-working, and disciplined, *têtes de colonne*. Their "example stimulates the emulation of their comrades, and raises "the general tone of the studies. In working for themselves, "the scholars, without knowing it, work for their comrades and "for the school."

Travelling scholarships.

Mention must also be made of the excellent foreign travel scholarships—*bourses de séjour à l'étranger*. These date from 1883, and owe their origin, like so much of the best parts of French primary education, to M. Buisson. The first candidates were sent to Switzerland on an allowance of 100 francs a month, and were chiefly intended to enter the teaching profession on their return to France. The results achieved were so satisfactory that the system was rapidly extended. Various changes have occurred in the arrangements from time to time, and the whole history of the movement is well worthy of study. This memorandum will, however, deal only with the present arrangements as applicable to students of the higher primary schools.

In these schools the travelling scholarships are given upon a public competitive examination, the candidates must be between 16 and 19 years of age, and must prove that their parents are unable to send them abroad at their own expense. The scholarships set apart for pupils of higher primary schools are given solely to those who intend to follow a commercial or industrial career, the "general" students (most of whom enter the teaching profession) being sufficiently provided for by the travelling scholarships set apart for members of the staff of normal colleges. The scholarship-holders enter as students in commercial schools or general schools in other countries to which they are sent, and sometimes as apprentices or clerks, without pay, in business houses. They are obliged to write monthly theses in the language of the country where they are residing; these are examined by the *comité de patronage*, who are responsible in France for the general arrangements of the scheme and for placing the scholars.* The scholarships are usually tenable for a year, with possibility of extension; they vary in amount for the different countries where they are held; those in England being much the highest. There are at present three in Germany (Bremen, Hamburg, and Munich), and nine in England (Clifton, Manchester, Birmingham, Exeter, London, Newcastle, and Liverpool). The experiment has been a great success. Thus M. Armagnac says:—"If we glance through "the correspondence of the scholarship-holders from the *écoles* "*primaires supérieures* we find a sentiment which is expressed "nearly everywhere under an almost identical form:—'I am "treated like a child of the house'; 'I am here in the position "of a son'; 'It seems just as if I were one of the family.' And "everywhere the intellectual and moral effects are on a par with "the material comforts with which the scholar is surrounded. "He is encouraged, upheld, and counselled. Whilst he is allowed "a great deal of liberty, the company he keeps is watched, he is "put into communication with good comrades and respectable "families; in fact in every respect he is treated as a good father "would treat him. These are services which cannot be forgotten, "and for which their authors cannot be sufficiently thanked.

* Some of the reports written by normal college scholarship-holders have been very valuable, and have been published in the *Revue Pédagogique*.

" . . . . And, whilst learning the language of the country which " receives them, the scholars learn at the same time their manners " and customs."* " I am surprised at the earnestness of your young men," writes the head of an English training college to a member of the committee ; and, a few days later, one of these young men wrote in his turn, " I imagined the English to be the " coldest-natured people in the world ; they seem so at first, but " how pleasant they are when the ice is broken ; I am loaded " with kind attentions and surrounded with friends."

It is intended in the future to send scholars also to Spain, Italy, the Netherlands, and Russia. Already the municipalities have followed the example of the State, and many now set apart municipal funds every year for these travelling scholarships. In 1889 there were as many as 67 pupils of higher primary schools who had been sent to England and Germany by these means.

F.—Social Class of the Students.

Perhaps the next point of importance in gauging the work of the higher primary school system in France is to discover how far the schools are frequented by the class of children for whom they were intended. The answer to this question must vary to a certain extent with the locality. There are instances where the "well-to-do" classes have made considerable use of the admirable instruction provided in the higher primary schools ; but it seldom happens that they are numerous enough to keep out *the most intelligent* of those who in a pecuniary sense need it more ; for, wherever there is an insufficiency of places, it is open competition that decides admission, so that the cleverer pupils always get in first ; and the cleverer pupils of the elementary school have every chance of success, since the subjects and methods of the examination are strictly on the lines of the elementary school upper standard and certificate work.

Moreover, the fact of *gratuité* has an immensely potent social influence in France. By the Act of 1881 all "primary instruction" was made free, and by the Act of 1886 higher primary schools and apprenticeship schools were specially named as being parts of primary instruction ; hence fees may not be charged for the instruction given in them. And in France there is still sufficient *amour propre* of a peculiar kind to prevent any large use of free schools by any social class higher than the *petit bourgeois ;* firstly, from a dread of *promiscuité* (*i.e.*, the mixed character of the children who will be found there), and, secondly, from a feeling of social pride, which hesitates to make use of free schools provided out of public funds.

* Monsieur Bréal says:—" Ils apprennent la Suisse et l'Angleterre, et ils font connaître la France."

As a general rule, it may be safely said that in the larger towns the higher primary schools are frequented *solely* by children who enter them direct from the elementary schools, for there is sufficient provision both for preparatory and for higher education, in the *lycées* and in private schools, for those who dislike the *promiscuité* of the free higher primary school. But in the provincial districts, where the higher primary school is sometimes the only available means that exist for any efficient higher education for many miles round, and specially where a well-managed *internat* removes the difficulty of distance, a higher social class have learnt to avail themselves of the excellent instruction which is there provided, without cost so far as the actual teaching is concerned.

Thus the town of Melun, about two hours' journey from Paris, maintains an *école primaire supérieure* for girls, which has 72 boarders and only 25 day scholars; none of the former belong to the town which founded and maintains the school; they come from considerable distances, some from Paris; many, even of the day boarders, come in by train from surrounding districts; in fact, less than a third of the whole number of scholars belong to the town of Melun, and very few have been at an elementary school. The boarding fees are high, and by means of these and of fees for extra studies the school brings a handsome yearly profit to the municipal budget.

This, however, is a very exceptional case. In the great majority of higher primary schools there is ample room for all the children of that comparatively small number of the wage-earning classes who can afford to forego the child's daily earnings in order to continue his or her education beyond the primary school age.

G.—The Question of Free Education in Higher Primary Schools.

As we have seen, the higher primary schools were placed under the action of the Free Education Act, so that no fees can be charged for instruction. But the whole question of the wisdom of this *gratuité* in the higher primary schools is very much discussed in France. Two salient points come out from all the discussions as being generally agreed upon:—

(*a.*) That if *gratuité* were abolished and fees were charged for instruction, a higher social class would at once make use of the higher primary school, and in time flood out the poorer class who can now freely avail themselves of its benefits; that, in fact, it is only the maintenance of *gratuité* that prevents this. Thus, when the question was being hotly discussed by the Paris Municipal Council in July 1895, it was stated that when the Collège Chaptal made the experiment of *gratuité absolue*, (*i.e.*, of abolishing even those fees

which were imposed for certain *extra* hours of study, as explained above), great numbers of upper class pupils immediately left, to avoid associating with the influx of children of a lower social class which was certain to ensue; and the private school maintained by a religious order in the next street was at once filled. And at the École Jean Baptiste Say, when the municipality went to the expense of establishing an *externat gratuit*, it was for a similar reason the Brothers' School at Passy which gained the benefit of increased numbers; for most of the upper class pupils migrated at once from Jean Baptiste Say to the private school, to avoid the *promiscuité*. But when fees were again charged, many of these came back to the municipal school.* The social class of the pupil, in fact, rises and falls with the presence or absence of fees; so that the principle of *gratuité* must evidently be maintained, if the schools are to continue to be frequented by the class for whom they are intended, instead of being swamped by a class of children whose wants can be supplied by schools of a different type and cost.†

Reasons for and against the abolition of fees.

(*b.*) And, secondly, if *gratuité* were abolished, most of the struggling *petit bourgeois* and working class, who now contrive to send their children to these schools, would be unable to make the additional sacrifices necessary to pay school fees besides those they already make in foregoing their children's wages for two or even three years after they might legally be at work.

This lessening of numbers or raising of the social class would be of course still more the case in regard to the higher primary schools which have boarding departments. If instruction fees were charged, the total annual fees now paid by boarders, who form a very large portion of the higher primary scholars in the *provincial* districts of France, would have to be very much higher than the present average of 500 francs (20*l.*), which represents, of course, only the boarding charges. And such an increase would at once deter large numbers of parents from availing themselves of the schools, who at present can just contrive to do so.

To introduce such an increased cost without lessening the chances of obtaining the present class of scholars who use the

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* In the Chaptal and Jean Baptiste Say Schools the effect of the law of *gratuité* is almost over-ridden by means of charging fees for these extra studies; and these two schools are frequented by a markedly higher social class than the others. No hardship, however, exists, as these two schools are situated in the wealthy quarter of the city and suburbs.

† If this argument be a true one, and it is widely prevalent, a further interesting corollary must be admitted, viz., that the fact that so many parents would gladly send their children to this type of schools, even though the fees were considerably raised, if it were not for their dread of the *promiscuité*, is a most striking testimony to the general appreciation felt for the particular curriculum and type of education provided in these schools.

schools, there would require to be an immense extension of the scholarship system which we have described. And this, it is contended by many, is the true solution of the question. But a fair and thorough application on a much larger basis than at present of a scholarship system, which shall safeguard as effectually as at present the interests of those who are really most needy, would be a very difficult and expensive matter; and scholarships misapplied, and public aid misdirected, are grave evils, which French public economy has no intention of risking at present.

It should be noted that it is the directors of the more conspicuous and high-classed schools who are the chief opponents of the present system of *gratuité*. Their natural desire is to raise the general standard of their schools and to produce as brilliant results as possible. This could best be done by eliminating the less capable and less well endowed of their scholars, and so procuring room for a class of scholars who would be likely to stay longer at the school. Thus the very argument which is adduced in support of the change admits that the effect of the change would assuredly be to raise the social level of the scholars in these schools, and to eliminate a large proportion of those whom in theory the schools are mainly intended to reach.

The Government, in fact, intends the large Treasury grants given to this type of school—as stated in the Introduction on page 6 above—to bring this commercial, industrial, agricultural, and technical education to the doors of *as many as possible* of the wage-earning and *petit bourgeois* class who would otherwise remain with nothing beyond bare elementary education; and *not* to provide at a low cost a type of secondary schools, which would be used mainly by people who can afford to pay a fair price for a good education.

And, therefore, the Government and the general public opinion of France, while frankly admitting that under the present system it sometimes happens that people make use of the free education of the higher primary schools who could well afford to pay the full cost price for it, will undoubtedly maintain the principle of *gratuité*, for the following reasons, which are always advanced when the question is raised:—

Chief reasons for retaining *gratuité*.

(*a.*) They say in effect: It is better that we should permit a certain number of well-to-do people to obtain for nothing an education for which they could well afford to pay, rather than that we should—in seeking to prevent this—shut off from the wage-earning and *petit bourgeois* class the freest possible chance of obtaining that continuation of their elementary education which it is so urgently needful that they should have, if France is to hold her own in the international competition where her agricultural and industrial classes, and their foremen, are her chief hope.

(*b.*) They say: Although *gratuité* involves *promiscuité*, and thus a certain number of pupils refuse to enter our

schools whom we might be glad to see there, yet it is better that this should be so than that fees should be charged; since it is only by providing *gratis* the admirable instruction that we now provide that we can hope to keep in check the schools of the religious orders, and so keep a considerable portion of the upper working class and lower middle class out of the hands of the Catholics, to whom France can never again afford to commit her educational resources, if she seeks to survive in the competition of 19th-century knowledge, freedom, and advancement.*

H.—Present Condition and Results of the Higher Primary System.

Increase of the number of scholars.

As regards the success of higher primary schools, it must be observed that in spite of the fact that the whole child population of France, aged 6–13 years, has decreased 1·4 per cent. in the last five years, and the total number of children in elementary schools and infant schools (public and private) has diminished 1·8 per cent. in the same time, yet the number of scholars in higher primary schools has increased by about 7 per cent. for boys, and 12 per cent. for girls.†

In fact the steady growth of this branch of popular education, in response to the new legislation, the increased Treasury grants, and the enhanced interest in education displayed by many municipal councils, is a matter of great congratulation to the French Government.

Speaking only of public State-aided schools, there are now 192 higher primary schools for boys, and 76 for girls. In 1886 there were 16,217 boys in public higher primary schools; these have risen to 21,996 in 1895, a rise of 35 per cent. The number of girls was 5,150, and is now 8,660, denoting a rise of 68 per cent. in the same 10 years.‡

The increase of pupils in the *cours complémentaires* in the same 10 years has been 37 per cent. for boys and 26 per cent. for girls, there being now 11,518 boys and 5,223 girls attending these courses.

The question of the proportion of school children who, on leaving the elementary school, pass on to higher primary schools or classes is an exceedingly difficult one, owing to the absence of definite information as to the number of children who leave the elementary schools in any given year, as distinguished from the

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* *See* Appendix IV. regarding the question of denominational schools in France.

† A curious fact in French statistics may be noted in connexion with this point. The number of children from 2–6 years of age was less in 1891 than it was in 1886 by 3·8 per cent., and the number from 6–13 years was less by 1·4 per cent., but the number of children from 13–16 years of age was *more* by 4·2 per cent.

‡ There are now 156 so-called "Organised Science Schools" in the whole of the United Kingdom, with some 18,000 students; 137 of these schools are in England.

total number who are in average attendance throughout the year. It may be roughly estimated that, in the case of boys about 3 per cent. of the whole of the elementary scholars now pass on to the higher primary schools; since only about one-fifth of the boys in elementary schools obtain the *certificat d'études élémentaires*, which is the condition of entry for higher primary schools, and only about 15 per cent. of this number are known to enter higher primary schools or classes; but no doubt this proportion will rise with the present rapid increase of *cours complémentaires*.

Defects. Children leave too soon.

One of the chief difficulties and defects with which the present system has to contend is the constant tendency of the pupils to leave the higher primary school before completing the course of three years or four years, as the case may be.*

Thus, in Paris, as many as 37 per cent. of the boys and 26 per cent. of the girls stay only one year at the school. This is a very grave defect, since the whole plan of instruction is based upon a three years' complete course. In some of the provincial towns, specially those where the boys who frequent the schools come from a slightly better class, better results are obtained. Thus in Orléans, out of 64 boys who left in 1895 there were only 12·5 per cent. who stayed less than a year; 25 per cent. stayed for one year only; 25 per cent. remained for two years only, and as many as 37·5 per cent. remained three years and over. And again in Bordeaux, 40 per cent. stayed for three years, and another 40 per cent. stayed for two years, and only 20 per cent. left at the end of the first year. In Paris and Lyons the figures are much worse in this respect; but it must be remembered that in these very large towns there is such ample provision of secondary education of various grades and at various fees, that the higher primary schools are frequented by a much poorer class than is the case in the provincial towns, and still more in the country districts; and the poorer classes naturally set their children sooner to wage earning. In Lyons some 30 per cent. leave at the end of the first year, taking the average of all the six higher primary schools in that town, and only about 15 per cent. remain for a third year. In Paris 37 per cent. of the boys and 26 per cent. of the girls stay only one year.† Taking the average of the five higher primary schools for

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* Compare the latest report of the Charity Commission on the new intermediate schools in Wales, where the schools are warned against two dangers which beset them at the outset of their career. One is the lowering of the standard for admission, and the other is the premature removal of children from school. Report for 1895.

† It is this large exodus at the end of the first year that leads so many critics to say that many of the children in higher primary schools in large towns would do better to go to the *cours complémentaires*, which definitely offer a one year's course with option of repeating it; and that the general standard of higher primary school work would thus be raised, while the municipalities and the State would avoid the needless waste of providing expensive higher primary school buildings and staff and equipment for scholars whose requirements would be adequately and even more appropriately met by the *cours complémentaires*.

boys and of the two schools for girls in Paris, and excluding the *professionnelles* schools, the average figures are as follows:—

Only 13 per cent. boys and 23 per cent. girls stay more than three years;

Only 34 per cent. boys and 49 per cent. girls stay more than two years;

Only 63 per cent. boys and 74 per cent. girls stay more than one year.

These figures show that girls are kept at school longer than boys. This is true all over the country; the reason being that, considering the social class from which they are drawn, which is generally characterised as *assez aisé*, the great mass of the girl scholars do not earn their living on leaving these schools, but definitely look forward to marriage and a home of their own, whereas practically *all* the boys are removed as soon as a suitably remunerative employment is found for them.

Expenditure on education per student.

As regards the expenditure in these higher primary schools, there is, of course, considerable variety in the different parts of France.

The city of Paris, which spends nearly 950,000*l.* a year on her public primary schools, devotes 74,120*l.* of this sum to her higher primary schools, and 45,454*l.* to her *écoles professionnelles*, without counting the expenditure on buildings.

If we exclude original cost of buildings, and capital value of buildings or site, the budget shows that Paris in 1894 spent 15*l.* 13*s.* per head in one of her boys' higher primary schools, 17*l.* 11*s.* in another, 18*l.* 10*s.* in another, and 20*l.* 13*s.* in a fourth. The education provided is the same in each case, the variation in cost corresponds very closely to the variation in the number of pupils present (the smaller the numbers, the greater is of course the average expense). The average of the whole was about 18*l.*

In her finest boys' higher primary school the expenditure comes to 33*l.* per head, but this includes the cost of the *pensionnat* or boarding-house, and the fees charged for the boarding-house and for the *études surveillées* bring down the net cost to the town for this one establishment to 14*l.* per scholar.

For her two higher primary schools for girls, Paris spends in the one case 12*l.*, and in the other 18*l.* per head.

These figures* are much higher than in any other town in France.† Thus, in St. Étienne, with a population of 133,000, one of the largest industrial towns of France, the actual cost per head at the boys' higher primary schools is 6*l.* 11*s.*; at Bordeaux, with 252,000 inhabitants, 5*l.* 12*s.* per scholar; at Lyons, about 6*l.*; at Orléans, 4*l.* 16*s.*

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* These calculations include all the "maintenance" and scholarship expenditure, without reference to the sources—whether State grant or local rates—from which the expenditure is met.

† The principal reason for this higher expenditure is the higher rate of salaries payable in the metropolis.

Expenditure at the technical school.

For the *écoles primaires professionnelles*, or technical higher primary schools, some of which have now become *écoles pratiques d'industrie*, the expense is naturally much greater, in view of the costly fittings of the workshop machinery, looms, &c., &c.

In Paris the work produced in these schools is sold, and this lessens the cost considerably.

In the École Diderot at Paris, a school for training metal workers, brass-founders, locksmiths, plumbers, fitters, metal turners, &c., the cost is 23*l.* a head, after deducting proceeds of sales of work; in the École Boulle, for furniture makers, and the École Estrave, for book-binders, printers, and engravers, the cost is about 39*l.* In the school of applied chemistry (practically a science school of the 1st grade) the cost is as much as 110*l.* per pupil, owing to the small attendance.

In all these schools, not only are no fees charged, but the scholars are provided gratis with all the necessary tools and material, as also with a free mid-day meal.* This is included in the foregoing figures of expenditure. The six *écoles professionnelles* for girls cost the town on an average 15*l.* per head for salaries and ordinary maintenance, after allowing for the proceeds from sales of work.

At the magnificent *école professionnelle* for boys at St. Étienne, oneof the finest of its kind in the country, with 300 in average attendance, the cost is about 15*l.* per head.

Its effect upon the youth of France.

There remains the question of the results which accrue to France from this carefully organised system and this generous expenditure. It has been constantly said that the higher primary schools make *déclassés;* that they give a distaste for manual labour and turn into clerks and "useless quill-drivers" many hundreds of boys and girls whose proper sphere would have been the workshop, the farm, or the counter.† So impressed have the Government been with this danger, and with the terrible evil of thus diminishing the supply of recruits for the agricultural and industrial army, that they have instituted a yearly return, which must be sent in by every school, giving as nearly as possible all particulars as to the career which each pupil has entered upon, or the employment he or she has obtained, on leaving the school. Of course in using these figures a large margin of error must be allowed for. But though its absolute value may be small, the return is undoubtedly useful for purposes of comparison over any particular period of time, and often serves to show the differences from year to year in the results brought about by various changes in the curricula of the schools.

Results too literary.

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* We are here speaking of Paris only, where there has recently been a strong socialistic element in the Town Council. Compare the resolution passed at the conference of the Independent Labour Party at Nottingham, on April 7th, 1896:—"That the State shall provide an efficient system of technical instruction, free and "compulsory, for children between the time of their leaving the elementary school "and the age at which they can be employed as workers; and that the State be "responsible for their maintenance while so engaged."

† *See* the Appendix, for the Commission's report upon this point.

In the earlier days of State recognition, as was shown in the foregoing historical sketch, the instruction was almost entirely literary, and one of the careers chiefly adopted by the pupils was that of teaching. This has remained a characteristic of the girls' higher primary schools for a much longer period than in the boys' schools. With regard to boys, a very large number, almost the majority at one time, went from these schools to obtain employment as office clerks; and it was to stop this tendency that the creation of special *professionnel* sections was permitted, as was shown above, with the most definite and practical results in the direction aimed at.

Thus, taking the returns of the years 1886, 1887, 1889, and 1892, we find that the number of boys who entered normal colleges or at once embraced the teaching profession decreased successively from 12 per cent. of the whole number to 7·5 per cent., and 6·30 per cent., and finally to 5·8 per cent. And those who entered as clerks in offices were diminished from 21·3 per cent. to 21·1 per cent., 20·21 per cent., and finally to 17·7 per cent. of the whole. **After careers of the students.**

On the other hand, in the case of manual occupations, in which an increase was so anxiously desired by the Government, the numbers have greatly risen. The number of boys who, on leaving, entered "technical schools" with a view to specific professions in industry or commerce rose from 4·5 per cent. in 1886 to 5·8 per cent. of the whole, in 1892. And, still more strikingly, the number of those who entered directly into industry, whether as regular apprentices or as assistants in their parents' workshops, has risen from 19·0 per cent. in 1886 to 23 per cent. in 1887, 26 per cent. in 1889, and 27 per cent. in 1892.

These figures are at any rate sufficient to show that the *tendency* is increasingly in favour of industrial as against clerical occupations.*

But the diversion of the natural sources of labour recruitment into other and usually more literary channels through the spread of education is after all both an educational and an economic question, and one which must constantly arise in a more or less acute form in any country where what is known as "an educational ladder from the gutter to the university" is once erected. As regards its educational aspect it has, of course, a most direct bearing upon the question of the true functions of a higher primary school system; the latter being in fact a most potent instrument in the hands of far-sighted statesmen, for shaping the thoughts as well as the aptitudes of the cleverer children of the working classes towards a particular end. And, as has been shown, French educationalists are making great **Increase of industrial tendency.** **Need for still further practical developments.**

* The details given in Appendix II., as to other professions will demonstrate the great variety of careers for which the higher primary schools prepare their pupils, and it must be remembered that for each and all of these a "general education" is insisted on for every boy prior to, and also to a certain extent concurrently with, the special instruction for any particular career.

efforts to direct the influence of the higher primary schools to a very distinct end, viz., the increase and improvement of the *manual workers* of the community.

The difficulty of this question has been felt to the full as acutely in France as in England, as is apparent in the following forcible words from the pen of M. Cohendy, whose writings have already been frequently quoted in this memorandum. He says:—

"Side by side with these reforms there is another, and perhaps a more important one, which does not depend wholly upon the State. It is that of public opinion and of the prejudices which are still noticeable with respect to careers in industry and commerce. How often one hears a working man say:—'My son 'shall not be a working man; I have suffered too much, and I 'still suffer too much, from the unfortunate condition which I 'am in.' From the top to the bottom of the social ladder the same prejudice always exists, and this prejudice is not of yesterday's date. Without going back so far as the Greeks and Romans, we know in what low estimation work was held under the ancient order of things and even in the middle ages of civilisation, when it was considered derogatory to engage either in industry or in commerce. Since that time revolutions have taken place which have utterly changed our laws and our customs; yet this one prejudice has remained in full force, though there is not a more dangerous or false one. . . . . The ideal of the artizan is a situation at the desk. But is it really true that this work would give him more advantages than his own trade? Will not the apprentice trained in the schools, and with skill heightened by that training, obtain higher wages than the clerk at the *mairie* or the customs house? If he be intelligent and know his work, has he not before him a better outlook than that of the clerk whom he envies? And in any case is not the work of the workshop preferable to the monotony and detail of the Government offices? Yet it is the ideal of families who rise to easier circumstances that their children should enter what is called a 'liberal career.' But one would ask, in what way do such careers require more intelligence or deserve more consideration than careers in industry or commerce?"*

The question of *déclassés*.

The school as affecting boys' careers.

In France it is now becoming increasingly recognised that to meet and avert this social danger must be one of the chief duties of the public schools and specially of the higher primary schools. It has been shown above that the framing of the curriculum of these schools in France has been very distinctly devised with a view to accomplishing this end indirectly; and further measures have also been taken for bringing an influence in a similar direction to bear *directly* upon the tastes and wishes of the pupils themselves; namely, through the masters and mistresses of the higher primary schools, since they have an

* Dictionnaire d'Économe Politique, p. 896.

unparalleled opportunity of forming the ideas, tastes, and ambitions of the *best* part of *la jeunesse* of the country. It is for this reason that the director, or directress, at the head of a higher primary school, is free from any fixed duties of class teaching. The director is not only concerned with the general educational supervision of masters and classes, of programmes and time-tables, of order and sanitation, but is also specially entrusted with the personal supervision of every scholar, as regards his progress in the school, his moral as well as intellectual growth, the "special" direction which his studies shall follow, the relation between the pupil and his home life, and above all the particular career for which he is to prepare himself at school, and even the actual employment and place of employment which he enters when leaving the school. And the same is true of the directrice of a girls' school.

Every higher primary school is, in fact, a *bureau de placement*; its prestige is as a rule so high, the influence of the director upon the scholars so well known, the capacity connoted by a given position in the school so definitely to be estimated, and the habits of industry and order inculcated in the school so widely recognised, that the managers of *maisons de commerce* and *maisons d'industrie* constantly make direct application to the heads of schools when in want of new employés. Thus scholars who leave these schools can invariably be placed in the employment for which they are best fitted, and in houses where they can hope for fair treatment and good prospects.* It is often pointed out that the moral as well as the purely pecuniary benefit of this is even more apparent, if possible, in the case of girls than of boys, when the many dangers of apprenticeships in unknown workshops is taken into account.

The institution of the *Associations des Anciens Élèves*, which exist in connexion with almost every higher primary school, is also a powerful instrument to the same end. But these associations deserve a more detailed notice than is possible within the limits of this memorandum. They are numerous and powerful societies, and afford excellent means for ensuring to their members successful careers and satisfactory lives, and for maintaining healthy influences over the 12,000 or 15,000 scholars who leave the higher primary schools every year to enter upon the struggle of life.

I.—Conclusions.

In conclusion, it may be useful to gather together, from this study of the French higher primary system, its chief features of usefulness and success, and to note wherein it differs from the condition of a somewhat similar grade of public education in England.

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* The *Comité de Patronage* gives great assistance in this important matter.

1. The higher primary schools in France are not open to all comers, like our higher grade schools. In the latter, the benefit of a gratuitous, or at least cheapened, form of higher education from public funds can, as a rule, be enjoyed whether the recipient is or is not *worth* educating to a higher point—worth it, that is to say, in regard to the enhanced value which he will be to the community at whose expense he gains this continuation of his education. But the French Government does not consider it a part of the duty of the State or of the commune to provide this branch of education for the use of any who may desire it; they restrict it, both by entrance qualifications and by successive examinations, to children who can prove their fitness to profit by it. Moreover, not only are measures adopted for thus eliminating the unfit from its sphere, but care is also taken to bring within its sphere by means of scholarships all those who are particularly fit to profit by it, but who might be unable to enter it without assistance. It is in fact an admirable example of what Huxley called "a capacity-catching machine." In England some of the county and county borough authorities have established scholarships for scholars leaving the elementary schools; but there is no uniform system over the whole country, so that many districts are very poorly supplied, and particularly those districts which most need educational elevation.* And even in those places where they exist, there is as a rule but little method shown in fixing the proportion of scholarships tenable at one class of school rather than another. So that it has often resulted that numbers of scholars have entered secondary schools who would have benefited far more by taking either a higher primary course, or else a technical course like that of the French *écoles pratiques*.

In France this passage from the elementary school direct to the secondary school is not often made; nor is it desired that the means for secondary education should be offered too freely in place of the more practical higher primary education, or of the definitely technical instruction of the *écoles pratiques*. At the same time for those cases (necessarily infrequent) where such a transition would be really beneficial alike to the child and to the community, the higher primary school affords some sort of "passage-school," and saves that dislocation of every secondary school class which accepts ex-elementary school children, of which so many complaints are now being made in some of our secondary schools where county scholarships are held. More-

* Comp. Mr. Yoxall's words in the *Leeds Mercury*, April 18, 1896:—"Only 14 "out of 61 county boroughs had by 1894 founded scholarships . . . . . "the county councils who had not founded scholarships were 12 in number, "nearly all being agricultural counties, precisely those which most require better "education for their population if their staple industry is to revive." It should, however, be added that the Science and Art Department now makes grants towards scholarships for elementary school pupils; but they are conditional in every case on the provision of a certain sum from voluntary local subscriptions. *See* Science and Art Directory, sections xxxvi. and xxxvii.

over, the intervention of the higher primary school brings the additional advantage of testing the fitness of the candidate for receiving a secondary education more thoroughly than is possible on his first leaving the elementary school.* For parents not desiring a secondary education for their children, the system of scholarships, from the State, the county, and the town is both complete and widespread; and, when the absence of fees in all higher primary schools is remembered, it must be admitted that a very complete machinery exists for putting within the reach of every intelligent child on leaving the elementary school a suitable continuation of his education without cost and often without sacrifice of any kind.

2. But that these and other educational benefits are so real and so active, or indeed possible at all, is largely due to the fact that the system is so widely spread and so carefully established (on more or less uniform and generally understood lines) in *every* portion of the country; and it is in this particular that the authority of the Central Ministry of Education over higher primary instruction is seen to be so immensely valuable. The original compulsory establishment of higher primary schools is not now in force. But, owing to the large State grants, there are now but few districts in which a boy is out of reach of a higher primary school, or at least a *cours complémentaire*.

Even those districts which might have been supposed to be backward (like our rural counties) have been induced to make provision, and the Department inspectors assist by advice and suggestion in promoting the extension of the system, wherever possible, on the lines of the State scheme, but having regard to special local requirements and circumstances.

3. At the same time it must be remembered that there is another factor which increases the advantages thus accruing from the influence of the central authority upon education above the elementary stages, viz., the local knowledge and influence of the Recteurs d'Académie, the local representatives of the central authority, who supervise the provision of education over each of the fifteen geographical divisions of France which they respectively direct and in which they reside. As their authority embraces *all* grades of education, their influence is excellent and effective in regard to such questions as overlapping on the one hand, or deficiency in any particular grade on the other. They also furnish an effective machinery for spreading the principles of the Government schemes throughout every district of the country, while adapting their application at the same time to local conditions. It may be added that as the inspectors are free from all duties of assessing a grant, or examining individual children for labour exemption, or "passing" candidates for

* This "passage" is of course only contemplated into "modern" secondary schools. For an adequate benefit to be derived from a "classical" secondary school, it is held that the necessary previous preparation must be commenced at least as early as the 10th year of the boy's age.

any form of teaching certificate, they are able to give full time and thought to the actual methods and working of the schools, and to criticising suggestions and encouraging the various attempts to improve the education given.

4. Another happy result of the control of a central authority, having all grades of education more or less under its cognisance, has been the gathering together of the separate experiences of different localities as regards their educational needs and the different stages through which these have passed; so that the most useful laws and generalisations of progress have been observed, and thus measures have been devised to cope with newly developing requirements and to effect the due counterbalancing of competing needs. This feature of the French system has already been noticed in regard to the provision of technical instruction. It is also particularly noticeable in the deliberate purpose of the newest regulations of the Education Department for the higher primary schools. These regulations, upon proof of the too exclusively literary character of the prevailing type of higher primary education, have created the special courses intended to prepare more or less for particular professions which may now be said to be the distinctive feature of the present Higher Primary School system. Not that the schools are intended to produce expert workmen at any particular employment, but rather to turn out their students intelligent and well trained generally; with dexterities sharpened, and the varied skill of hand and eye well developed; capable of acquiring afterwards the expert skill and knowledge of the workshop far more rapidly and thoroughly than the ordinary new hand; and able to use this skill with an intelligence which will lead to inventiveness, and an insight which will both save labour wisely and direct it economically; thus giving the nation a supply of excellent *foremen* for industry, commerce, and agriculture.

5. It is difficult to exaggerate the advantages—for enlightening the popular mind, removing popular prejudices, and directing popular aims—of having clear, definite, uniform, and self-explanatory *titles* for each class of school and each division of public education.

It is easy to say that the making of logical categories and a clear nomenclature is a French hobby, which may quite possibly exist with a mass of confusion beneath it. But no one who makes inquiries in France—whether amongst officials into educational provision or amongst the people into their reasons for sending their children to any particular school—can fail to be struck with the beneficial effect upon each and all of the recognition of the basic educational differences (recognisable in their very names) between an *école primaire supérieure* and a *collège* (or *lycée*) *d'enseignement secondaire moderne*, and still more from the classical secondary school, as compared with the confusion worked upon the popular mind in England by our complex school nomenclature comprising high schools, higher grade schools, intermediate schools, central schools, grammar

schools, institutes, continuation schools, organised science schools, finishing schools, &c., &c.

This is a question of the highest moment to parents when planning out their children's education, and deciding in what direction the sacrifices they are prepared to make for them can best be made. In how many towns and villages in England is money—hardly earned and with difficulty spared—being unwittingly wasted in giving to a boy either an education which is quite unsuited to his capacities and which will leave him stranded and out of employment at the end of it, or else a base, fraudulent, and spurious imitation of education, which is far worse in its effects upon him than if the lad had gone out immediately to the work of life on leaving the elementary school. Nothing but good can come from the popular realisation of the clear distinction, for instance, between (1) schools intended to give a definite trade apprenticeship (such as the *écoles pratiques*), and (2) schools intended to give a general educative training in industrial, commercial, or agricultural methods, to pupils who have just left the elementary schools and have at most three years at their disposal, and (3) schools giving true secondary education—whether modern or classical—to scholars whose education is intended to last approximately from 7 to 18 years of age.

It cannot be doubted that there is a much clearer appreciation of these essential differences of educational requirements in the mind of "the man in the street" in France, than is the case in England; and that this is largely due to the uniform titles of schools, of which the connotation is immediately and unmistakably clear. Of course, there is also to be considered in this connexion the value of having at the central department a register comprising every school in the country, giving its grade, its curriculum, its staff, and its accommodation; so that one can see, by a glance at the map on which each school is marked, the condition of educational provision in any county; how far there is a deficiency of continuation schools within easy reach of the scholars who leave *each* elementary school; how far these deficiencies are met by neighbouring centres; how far they necessitate special local provision for boarding scholarships, or how far it is requisite to establish new schools.

6. Finally, one may perhaps be permitted to mention a feature which strikes one as being the most admirable though perhaps the least spoken about, of all the many points of interest in the French higher primary system—a feature which seems to indicate a feeling, widespread, though possibly not consciously realised, of what is the deep inner meaning of the true function of popular education. It is the prevalence of the spirit now underlying all efforts at reforming the curriculum of the "Schools for the People"—the spirit which finds expression in the words of M. Le Blanc, given as the motto at the head of this memorandum—the spirit which seeks to make the primary school a means of giving to every child a liking for, and a taste for, the inevitable occupa-

tion at which he will afterwards spend at least eight hours of almost every day of his life in the struggle to gain his bread. It is the effect of this spirit that is perhaps the most conspicuous feature of the latest developments of the Higher Primary Schools, as laid down in the Code of 1893, which gives such prominence to the special occupations suitable for the different careers of different scholars.

This spirit is by no means to be confounded with the purely utilitarian spirit, now so prevalent in all educational discussions, which urges an increased provision of technical instruction for the labouring classes, even from their earliest years, merely for the purpose of meeting the keen commercial and industrial competition between the nations. It is rather an earnest effort at a social reform which recognises that the backbone of a nation is its class of manual workers, both in the fields and in the workshop; and that a curriculum too exclusively literary, or too restricted to a book-teaching or class-teaching of even the practical subjects, does not tend to give the youth a liking for, but rather a distaste for, his after-toil at the workshop, the cart, or the plough; and that, without commencing too soon, or attempting too extensively any actual trade preparation, great things may be done for the taste and character, and ideals and after-happiness of the future worker by giving him, during his most receptive years of childhood and adolescence, an insight into the interesting side of manual labour, and some commencement of interesting practice therein; so that his plunge into the rushing torrent of life with its incessant manual toil shall thus be less severe a shock to his nature than hitherto, and his daily life as a man less startling a contrast to the class routine and student life of the school. It may surely be hoped that by thus bringing some of the manual work of the toiler into the class routine of the school, one may, in turn, see some of the intellectual interests of the school work brought into the daily life of the workshop; and thus the lot of the worker may be brightened and his contentment increased; and, perhaps, the mistaken rush into clerical pursuits be turned into a more steady reliance upon manual occupation, the dignity of labour once again established, and the strength of the backbone of the nation assured.

NOTE.—It has been the main endeavour of this Memorandum to present the spirit which has animated the French Government in their efforts to maintain their present system of higher primary schools, and to show the chief principles which they have sought to embody in that system. No doubt, in very many places, the work of individual schools in France will not be found to correspond at all closely to some of the principles herein set forth; but it is usually more instructive to consider a system at its best and in its general intentions, rather than from the results of modifications due to special or local circumstances.

Appendix I.

Historical Survey of the Causes underlying the creation of the Higher Primary Schools, and their differentiation from Secondary Schools.

The question of a continuation of elementary education.

At the present moment in France the instruction of children after they have left the elementary school—the education of *la jeunesse* as distinct from *l'enfance*—is receiving greater attention than any other educational problem. The period immediately succeeding the war of 1870 witnessed a remarkable development of elementary education, which was undertaken with the most intense earnestness and deliberation;* so that at this moment every town and village possesses its elementary school or schools, with an admirable register of attendance, at least up to the age of 11, though the attendance in the higher standards still leaves much to be desired.† But the last 10 years have shown with increased clearness the existence of further educational needs; needs which have become as pressing and as vital for the national existence now as elementary education itself had become in the seventies.

a necessity of the times.

M. Buisson, for many years Director of Primary Education in France, and one of the most enthusiastic and enlightened of modern educationalists, voiced this feeling, amidst great applause, in a fine speech before the Chambre des Deputés, on February 14th, 1895, when urging the need for further continuation schools and classes. His words are worth consideration by English readers, whose ears are perhaps more familiar with strictures upon the extension than upon the contraction of the scope of public elementary education.

Views of M. Buisson as representing primary education.

"C'est en effet l'évidence même aujourd'hui qu'il faut que l'école primaire laique, telle que la République l'a faite, étende et développe son action bien au delà des limites dans lesquelles elle a été obligée jusqu'à présent de s'enfermer.

"L'école primaire a été, vous le savez tous, étrangement attaquée depuis quelque temps: elle a été attaquée pour ce qu'elle fait, elle l'a été pour ce qu'elle ne fait pas. On lui a reproché sur tous les tons, quelquefois avec une violence qui dépassait ce qu'on aurait pu attendre d'adversaires sérieux, d'avoir négligé l'œuvre de l'éducation morale et civique. Elle a été accusée d'impuissance, d'insuffisance, d'insignifiance; on a dit que les promesses qu'elle avait faites n'avaient pas été tenues; on a parlé de 'faillite,'—c'est le mot du jour, le mot à la mode. Il n'en est pas de plus faux. L'école laique est aussi loin de la banqueroute qu'elle a été loin des illusions exagérées et des enthousiasmes puérils.

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* M. Brunel writes in the Annuaire de l'Enseignement, p. 399: "La posterité "s'étonnera de l'effort prodigieux accompli en 20 ans par la République pour "la constitution de l'éducation populaire. Nos pères ont eu l'enthousiasme de la "liberté; on dira que *nous* avons eu l'enthousiasme de l'éducation; à cette œuvre la "nation tout entière a mis son âme."

† The certificate of elementary studies, which exempts from further attendance, can now be, and often is, obtained at the age of 11.

"Ceux qui l'ont conçue et fondée n'ont pas supposé un instant qu'elle arriverait du jour au lendemain à transformer la nation, qu'elle créeait d'un coup de baguette magique tout un nouvel ordre de choses au sein de notre democratie.

"Elle n'a pas dit son dernier mot. Mais si l'on veut qu'elle achève son œuvre, qu'elle atteigne l'ample résultat que la République lui a commandé de poursuivre, il est certain qu'il ne faut pas qu'elle s'enferme dans le cycle infiniment étroit où jusqu'à présent elle est restée. Actuellement l'école primaire, publique, obligatoire—l'école nationale, si vous me permettez le mot—cette école-là ne reçoit les enfants que jusqu'à l'âge de onze, de douze ou treize ans au maximum et dans des cas trop rares. Peut-on supposer sérieusement que l'œuvre d'éducation est finie pour qui que ce soit à onze ou à treize ans? Que seraient nos enfants, à nous autres qui avons le bonheur de pouvoir les faire élever dans les établissements secondaires, si leur éducation, leur développement moral et intellectuel se terminaient à onze ans? Il est donc de toute nécessité que l'école primaire développe son mandat ou plutôt le remplisse tout entier. Or elle ne peut le remplir qu'à la condition d'ajouter beaucoup à ce minimum d'instruction obligatoire, que l'on définissait l'autre jour ici-même: 'lire, écrire, et compter,' définition assurément trop restreinte. À ce minimum, l'école républicaine est tenue d'ajouter ce qui est indispensable à de futurs citoyens français: la connaissance de leurs droits et de leurs devoirs de citoyens, et la préparation à la vie qui les attend. *Après l'enfance, la jeunesse; car elle aussi a besoin d'éducateurs.*"*

At the moment M. Buisson was urging the claims of adult classes of evening continuation schools. These are but one amongst many means now adopted in France, as in England, to carry forward to a later stage the education given, or rather commenced, in the elementary school.

This effort is not in France the outcome of an abstract political ideal, aiming at the extension of higher education amongst all her citizens equally; on the contrary, it is the outcome of one of the most practical discussions of the day; and France declares that she has of late given herself thus earnestly to this question, because she finds it forced upon her by the increasing keenness of the international struggle for existence, and by the changes that are continuously taking place in the conditions of this struggle, which has become now a commercial and industrial rather than a military one. Thus M. Gréard, Director of Secondary Education in France, writes:—

Views of M. Gréard as representing secondary education,

"Les professions industrielles et commerciales ont pris, depuis 1789 et dans le cours de ce siècle, une importance qui ne pouvait même pas être soupçonnée sous l'ancien régime. 'A une société

* Annuaire de la Jeunesse for 1895, p. 464.

'reposée et enfermée dans les limites que lui avait assignées la 'nature, ne connaissant et ne pratiquant guère avec les nations 'voisines d'autres échanges que celui des idées, a succédé une 'société affairée, expansive, sollicitée de toutes parts par les 'intérêts du commerce et de l'industrie, mise en demeure, non 'plus seulement de soutenir l'éclat de sa grandeur héréditaire 'par la propagande de la production littéraire ou des découvertes 'scientifiques dont elle n'a pas cessé d'être le foyer, mais de 'lutter sur tous les marchés du monde pour le développement 'de sa richesse matérielle, pour la vie. Sur une population de '15 millions d'hommes engagés dans les branches diverses de 'l'activité nationale, plus de 14 millions sont voués aux pro-'fessions industrielles ou commerciales, tandis que les professions 'libérales en retiennent à peine 800,000.' "*

And M. Cohendy, one of the leading authorities on technical education, in commenting on these figures affirms the urgency of this need even more strongly, in treating of the *primary* education of the people :—

and of M. Cohendy as representing technical education.

"Ces chiffres, pour n'avoir peut-être pas une précision absolument rigoureuse n'en attestent pas moins la transformation profonde qui s'est opérée dans notre état social, et ils démontrent par cela même l'insuffisance de notre ancien système d'éducation. Comme le disait déjà Arago en 1836, 'Ce n'est pas avec de belles 'paroles qu'on fait du sucre de betterave ; ce n'est pas avec des 'alexandrins qu'on extrait la soude du sel marin.' Ce n'est pas non plus, ajouterons-nous, avec une instruction purement classique que l'agriculteur pourra rendre le sol plus fécond, l'industriel fabriquer à meilleur compte, le commerçant ouvrir de nouveaux débouchés.

"Cette population si nombreuse qui se rattache au commerce et à l'industrie reclame un système d'éducation nouveau. Elle veut un enseignement qui réponde mieux à ses besoins, qui la prépare plus directement aux professions qu'elle exerce, qui forme des négociants et des industriels, comme l'enseignement classique forme des lettrés et des savants. L'enseignement technique s'impose donc comme une conséquence nécessaire de la transformation de notre état social : et cette nécessité parait encore plus impérieuse si l'on examine la situation nouvelle de nos relations avec les étrangers. La lutte entre les peuples, qui était jadis l'exception, devient ajourd'hui la règle et constitue l'état normal des rapports internationaux. Cette lutte, il est vrai, ne se poursuit pas à coups de canon, et elle se porte de plus en plus sur le terrain de la production et des échanges : mais bien qu'on l'ait qualifiée, par antiphrase sans doute, de pacifique, elle est en réalité tout aussi meurtrière pour les vaincus que les plus sanglantes défaites. Or, on peut l'affirmer sans crainte d'être démenti, la victore, ici comme ailleurs, appartiendra à celui qui aura le mieux préparé les armes du combat, c'est-à-dire *au plus instruit.* L'organisation de l'enseignement technique

* Oct. Gréard, "Éducation et instruction, Enseignement supérieur," p. 218.

n'est donc pas une simple question pédagogie : c'est, au premier chef, une question vitale pour notre pays."*

These words from M. Cohendy, urging the need for an improved and extended technical education, touch directly upon what will evidently be, in the twentieth century, in all European countries, one of the main characteristics of a system of continuation schools, which is to suit the needs of the rank and file of the children who leave the public elementary schools. In France the recognition of the necessity for this advance has taken some time to make its way into the conviction of the masses, and still longer into that of the educational hierarchy; and the whole truth of the matter is still in some places very far removed from the position of general and legislative recognition that has been reached in England since the Acts of 1889 and 1890.

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Necessary characteristics of this continuation of elementary education.

In order to appreciate the position which higher primary instruction has now reached in France, it is necessary to comprehend the needs which it is intended to meet. A modern French educational reformer would represent the case more or less as follows :—

"One must constantly remember, in planning a higher primary school system, that the boy who leaves the elementary school has to think, first, how *soon* he can be free to earn his bread, and, secondly, how he can best use the few intervening months or years allowed him by his parents before they require him to work for his living, in such a way as to increase his practical abilities and so improve his future chances of rising in his career. Thus, what are called practical utilitarian considerations must ever have chief weight with him, whatever be the branch of life in which he may look forward afterwards to serve. Roughly speaking, in preparing for a career, he has to choose between (*a*) *industry* with its multiplicity of varying occupations depending largely on trained manual skill (*i.e.*, technical instruction), but assisted to an infinite extent by scientific knowledge (*i.e.*, intellectual acquirements and training), or (*b*) *commerce*, depending on practised skill and knowledge of certain professional methods (*i.e.*, professional instruction), but aided, nay, almost conditioned, by good general knowledge of history, geography, languages, &c., or (*c*) *agriculture*, which needs a large amount of technical training, but has admittedly fallen upon evil days mainly through lack of intellectual training being brought to bear upon it. Thus all these three careers alike call for a *double* preparation, viz., both specific practical (*professionnel*) instruction and a good general (*intellectuel*) education. (*d*) There are also, of course, what are called the liberal professions, but these can be *only for the few;* for the *élite* intellectually, since they only can hope to push their way to success, and for the few numerically, since there are not many who can afford to wait six or seven years without earning anything. Teaching comes, of course, under

* Dictionnaire d'Économie Politique, p. 882.

this category, but as in its elementary branches at least it demands less expenditure of time than the rest, it must necessarily be counted to some considerable extent amongst the openings for which the children we have in view will seek preparation. (*e*) There remain also the select and specially brilliant few who seek to climb the ladder of knowledge and to enter some day as scholars in the higher secondary schools and colleges, and even in the universities. But the number in this category will always and necessarily be very limited; and the educational provision for their needs must not be allowed to swamp that for the far greater numbers in other categories."

Variety its great feature.

Thus, an education which shall seek to respond to the needs of children who leave the public elementary schools, must provide both *general* and *professionnel* instruction, and must make provision for each and all of these varied requirements as far as possible *in proportion to the demand for each and all of them respectively.*

It is the existence of these varied requirements which has gradually, in the past 20 years, called into existence all over the country the many varied types of schools that have been created by the local authorities, and that have only recently come to be classified and organised by the central authority under the name of higher primary schools. And while at the outset the variety of the needs that the local authorities were setting out to supply was little dreamt of, it will be seen that by degrees alterations in the demand have brought about alterations in the supply—local needs have moulded abstract theories—and from sheer force of circumstances that which was originally a literary and intellectual conception has at length been forced into lines "of the most practical," and the idea that one uniform type of school and programme would suffice has had to give way to broader conceptions of a uniformity of general aims which shall attain its end by the very variety of its practical applications.*

Local origin of the schools

In spite of the centralisation of primary education in France (which, it may be remarked, is nothing like so great as is generally represented), it must be understood that the schools now known as higher primary schools have not been created in their full present development by the fiat of a central authority, nor under one uniform scheme or organisation. At various intervals, dating back even to the first quarter of the century, some of the large towns of France devoted a portion of their resources to establishing and maintaining out of municipal funds schools to which boys should pass after leaving the elementary school, with a view to improving the type of artisans and clerks in the great *maisons de commerce* or *maisons de l'industrie*, on which the prosperity

* Thus the final instructions of the Minister of Public Instruction to the Doyen of the Inspectorial Boards in the Circular of February 15, 1893, closes with these words:—"C'est à vous qu'appartient le soin de procurer l'unité de direction pédagogique que je ne confonds pas avec l'uniformité de réglementation!" Note also M. Devinal's words in the Annuaire de l'Enseignement for 1895, p. 402:—"L'enseignement doit avoir une grande souplesse, car il lui faut répondre aux besoins d'une clientèle très variée; et ceux qu'il instruit, ou qu'il exerce, seront demain des artisans, des ouvriers, des comptables, des commerçants, des instituteurs, etc."

of the towns mainly depended. But it is only in the last decade that these educational needs have received the direct attention of the State in any definite and organised fashion, and that the schools which ministered to these needs have been supervised and classified upon a common basis of pedagogic science.

Earliest State recognition.

It is, therefore, somewhat surprising to find that as long ago as 1833, M. Guizot, one of the greatest of French statesmen, had already foreseen the need of State protection for this educational provision, and had laid down general plans for its fulfilment, and even went so far as to render the provision of such higher education obligatory by law upon all the larger towns of France. He conceived of it as essentially a development of *primary* education, fulfilling totally different ends, and, therefore, using totally different means from *secondary* education. As this original conception of its true primary character has been maintained in France to the present day, and has saved its fate from many of the difficulties and mistakes that have beset it in England, it may be well to commence a study of the development of higher primary instruction in France by quoting the words in which it was first recognised by the State as a prime necessity of the country and an obligatory duty for the Government. M. Guizot, the principal author of the Education Act of 1833, which first recognised higher primary education, thus wrote of it in words which are still often used, even at the present day, to define this branch of national education :—

1833. M. Guizot's objects in founding a higher primary system.

"Nous avons divisé l'instruction primaire en deux degrés, l'instruction primaire élémentaire et l'instruction primaire supérieure. Le premier degré est comme le minimum de l'instruction, la limite audessous de laquelle elle ne doit pas descendre, la dette étroite de pays envers tous ses enfants. . . . Ce premier degré d'instruction est assez étendu pour faire un homme de qui le recevra, et, en même temps, assez circonscrit pour pouvoir être partout réalisé. Mais, de ce degré à l'instruction secondaire, qui se donne soit dans les institutions et pensions privées, soit dans les collèges de l'État, il y a bien loin, et pourtant, dans notre système actuel d'instruction publique, il n'y a rien entre l'un et l'autre. Cette lacune a les plus grands inconvénients. Elle condamne ou à rester dans les limites étroites de l'instruction élémentaire, ou à s'élever jusqu'à l'instruction secondaire, c'est-à-dire, jusqu'à un enseignement classique et scientifique extrêmement coûteux. De là il résulte qu'une partie très nombreuse de la nation qui, sans jouir des avantages de la fortune, n'est pas non plus réduite à une gêne trop sévère, manque entièrement des connaissances et de la culture intellectuelle et morale appropriées à sa position. Il faut absolument combler cette lacune : il faut mettre une partie si considérable de nos compatriotes en état d'arriver à un certain développement intellectuel, sans leur imposer la nécessité de recourir à l'instruction secondaire si chère à la fois et si périlleuse. En effet, pour quelques talents heureux que l'instruction classique développe et arrache utilement à leur condition première, combien de médiocrités y contractent des goûts et des habitudes incon-

patibles avec la condition modeste où il leur faudrait retomber, et, sorties une fois de leur sphère naturelle, ne sachant plus quelle route se frayer dans la vie, ne produisent guère que des êtres ingrats, malheureux mécontents, à charge aux autres et à eux-mêmes? . . . .

"C'est par ces considérations que nous avons établi et régelé un degré supérieur d'instruction primaire qui ajoute aux connaissances indispensables à tous les hommes les connaissances utiles à beaucoup: les éléments de la géométrie pratique, qui fournissent les premières données de toutes les professions industrielles; les notions de physique et d'histoire naturelle, qui nous familiarisent avec les grands phénomènes de la nature et sont si fécondes en avertissements salutaires de tous genres; les éléments de la musique ou au moins de chant, qui donne à l'âme une véritable culture intérieure; la géographie, qui nous apprend les divisions de cette terre que nous habitons; l'histoire, par laquelle nous cessons d'être étrangers à la vie et à la destinée de notre espèce, surtout l'histoire de notre patrie qui nous identifie avec elle, sans parler de telle ou telle langue moderne qui, selon les provinces où nous sommes placés, peut nous être indispensable ou du plus grand prix."

It is true that M. Guizot and his colleagues did not foresee the enormous industrial and commercial developments of our times; and the scope of higher primary instruction has since had to be infinitely extended; but they wisely made provision for this possibility when they laid it down that "the instruction "would receive such developments as would be found suitable "in accordance with the needs and resources of the several "localities."

Such, then, was the original idea of the end to be obtained by higher primary instruction, and M. Guizot was so convinced of the urgent need for schools of this type that he made their creation compulsory upon all urban communes of more than 6,000 inhabitants.

The results of this legislation however, were by no means commensurate with its intentions, and after a time it ceased to have any practical effect.

Various hindrances to its development.

What, then, were the causes which retarded the development of this idea and necessitated the reorganisation of the higher primary school system in 1886? Probably the main difficulty consisted in the then backward condition of *elementary* education, which necessarily precluded the existence of any large number of scholars who were ripe for *higher* primary instruction. Besides this, there was the lack of trained primary school teachers of sufficient knowledge and capacity to carry on primary instruction to a higher grade, and, not least, the unwillingness of the communal authorities to burden themselves with the expense of providing these higher primary schools in addition to the elementary schools, which were even then only just beginning

* M. Duplan. L'enseignement primaire public à Paris, Vol. II., p. 2.

to be constructed to any adequate extent, and were already a heavy burden upon the rates. Another difficulty of particular interest in comparison with the history of similar developments in England was the existence of certain so-called *cours français* (something like our "modern sides") in *lycées* and colleges, both public and private. These had been developed in response to the pressing demands for a non-classical education, which should be at once both much more practical and much shorter in duration than the classical education which had till then monopolised the field.

The following words from the Report of the Government Commission of 1878, appointed to inquire into the condition of higher primary instruction, will sound curiously familiar in some respects to English ears, as offering an explanation for the failure of higher schools similar to that which is occasionally advanced in England:—

Competition of lower secondary schools.

"En présence de l'insuffisance des écoles primaires alors existantes, et en l'absence d'établissements spéciaux d'un ordre plus élevé donnant l'instruction réclamée par une partie de la population, beaucoup d'enfants étaient envoyés dans les lycées ou collèges, non pour y recevoir toute l'instruction classique, mais seulement pour en suivre les cours durant plusieurs années et y puiser une instruction un peu plus forte, pensait-on, que celle qu'ils pouvaient acquérir dans les écoles primaires ordinaires. On avait même crée déjà dans quelques collèges, sous les noms de *cours de français* ou autres, des cours particuliers organisés en faveur de ces élèves. Ces cours étaient déjà bien plus nombreux qu'on ne l'a cru; on peut s'en convaincre en lisant les rapports officiels publiés à l'époque ou depuis. Mais ils étaient tout à fait hors d'état de conduire les élèves au but que se proposait la nouvelle loi. On n'y enseignait guère que la lecture, l'écriture, la langue française encore d'une manière très incomplète, le calcul avec un peu de géographie et d'histoire. Il n'y était aucunement question de l'enseignement scientifique que la loi de 1833 devait introduire avec raison dans l'instruction primaire supérieure. Les élèves qui suivaient les cours classiques pendant plusieurs années seulement étaient encore plus mal partagés; ils ne recevaient en tout qu'une ébauche d'instruction qui ne ne les rendait réellement aptes à aucune carrière.

"Cependant, après la promulgation de la loi de 1833, ces cours, loin de diminuer, allèrent, au contraire, en augmentant. Beaucoup de personnes avaient pensé qu'un des premiers résultats du degré d'enseignement que cette loi créait, serait d'amener, non pas la fermeture d'un certain nombre de petits collèges d'une organisation trop défectueuse pour donner une éducation classique propre à conduire aux professions libérales ceux qui la recevaient en entier, mais du moins la transformation de ces collèges en écoles primaires supérieures. Ces prévisions furent trompées. L'amour propre d'un grand nombre de parents, que froissait l'idée d'envoyer leurs enfants à l'école, et que flattait, au contraire, le nom de collège, bien plus relevé dans leur estime,

Popular misconception of its aims.

suffit pour empêcher cette transformation dans beaucoup de localités. D'un autre côté, un bon nombre de conseillers municipaux, faisant passer leur intérêt personnel avant celui de leurs administrés, préféraient, à une école primaire supérieure dont ils ne pensaient pas pouvoir profiter, un collège, quel qu'il fût, où ils pouvaient faire commencer sous leurs yeux l'instruction de leurs enfants, avant de les éloigner d'eux pour les envoyer achever leurs études dans un établissement plus important. La création de *cours* d'instruction primaire supérieure était un moyen de maintenir, en leur attirant des élèves, une grande partie des petits collèges qui ne faisaient que végéter, et qui autrement eussent été condamnés à une mort presque certaine. C'est ainsi que la fondation d'établissements distincts, exclusivement consacrés a l'enseignement primaire supérieur, fut entravée dans un grand nombre de localités où ils étaient nécessaires et où ils auraient certainement produit d'heureux fruits."

Gradual increase of higher primary schools.

However, in spite of these various obstacles, schools to provide further instruction for children on leaving the elementary schools continued to be founded and maintained out of municipal funds by an increasing number of local authorities, and within seven years from the passing of M. Guizot's law more than 160 were already in full working order in various parts of France, chiefly in the large commercial towns. Indeed, many of the best of the higher primary schools now working under State grants and a State organisation owe their existence to the independent efforts of the great municipalities, in the earlier half of the century.

Reaction and repression.

But, under the ministry* of M. Villemain, in the forties, the higher primary schools fell upon evil days. This Minister of Education possessed, and put into practice, strong sympathies in favour of classical schools, and strong prejudices against the "modern" tendencies of education; and he carried a measure which practically abrogated the statutory existence of the higher primary schools, and sought to supersede them by empowering the attachment or transference of higher primary classes to *lycées* and colleges. The more parsimonious of the communes readily availed themselves of this chance of avoiding the expense involved in the creation and maintenance of the true higher primary schools, and the latter became, in a number of cases, mere appanages of secondary schools or colleges. Thus the further extension of M. Guizot's far-sighted and practical ideas seemed for ever prevented, or at least indefinitely postponed.

Growth of local enterprise under other forms.

But the ever-increasing demand for good practical instruction, beyond the limits of the elementary school, caused both by the increase in numbers of the better artizans and the *petits bourgeois*, and also by the growth and change of modern commercial and industrial requirements, was still insufficiently supplied; and various new agencies came into existence, through "voluntary" efforts, to meet the demand. Amongst these, the most widespread and the most practical rivals of higher primary

* 1840–1844.

schools and classes were (as they still are in 1896) the adult classes and apprentice classes and evening continuation schools which were founded, partly by private effort, partly by public enterprise, in all the chief commercial and industrial centres.

State encouragement to these.

To these the State commenced to give substantial grants, as far back as 1850, thus bringing an additional competitor into the educational field against the higher primary schools as originally conceived. The adult classes, however, soon proved to be almost entirely occupied in giving strictly elementary education to illiterate adults, while the apprenticeship classes were so purely technical and so restricted in their hours that they cannot be said to have supplied the same needs as those contemplated by the scheme for higher primary instruction, as originally organised.

Creation of "modern-side" secondary education.

At length, in the sixties, occurred the epoch-making *régime* of M. Duruy, who founded, by the Act of 1865, the "modern" branch of secondary education as distinguished from the classical, under the title of *Enseignement secondaire spécial* and created the "modern side" of the *lycées* and *collèges* to be a complete alternative course of secondary education on non-classical lines.* This new development, to the casual observer, seemed destined to remove all further need for higher primary schools, since its professed aim was to supply a good practical education based on modern languages and modern science, such as would be a pre-eminently suitable preparation for the practical business of life. But such a supposition was based upon a misapprehension on the one side of the limited potentialities of the *clientèle* intended to be helped by the higher primary schools, and on the other of the essentially different character of the education covered by *enseignement secondaire spécial* from that of the higher primary schools properly so called. These differences have been admirably expressed by M. Gréard, the present Vice-Rector of the Academy of Paris, member of the Council of Higher Education.

Difference between this and higher primary education.

His remarks merit the most careful consideration, for they go to the root of the matter, and deal admirably with the confusion so constantly existing in the popular mind, in England as much as in France, which maintains that "elementary school" education leads naturally to secondary, and erroneously conceives of the secondary school as giving merely a continuation of the *same* studies as have been commenced in the primary school. He says†:—

"L'enseignement primaire a ses limites nécessaires. Pris à sa base, il comprend et ne peut comprendre que ce qu'il n'est pas permis d'ignorer pour être un homme; que ce qu'il est indispensable de savoir pour être un homme utile. Considéré dans son extension la plus large, il admet, il doit admettre, tous les

* For further notes on this subject, showing the ideas underlying M. Duruy's new creation, *see* Matthew Arnold's "Schools and Universities on the Continent," pp. 90–92.

† L'enseignement secondaire spécial. Hachette. 1881.

développements qui contribuent à affermir ces connaissances fondamentales, à les rapprocher des applications, à les faire tourner au profit tout à la fois de la culture morale de l'enfant et du perfectionnement de ses aptitudes professionnelles. Mais ce qui vise au delà de cette portée manque le but. Au surplus, les besoins de la clientèle à laquelle l'enseignement primaire s'adresse le définissent et le bornent, comme sa nature même. L'enfant qui fréquente l'école ne dispose pour ses études que d'un certain nombre d'années, la vie le réclame avec ses exigences auxquelles il ne peut se soustraire. De là vient qu'en certains pays, l'enseignement primaire supérieur porte simplement le nom si expressif d'enseignment complémentaire, qu'il soit donné à l'adolescent de la classe primaire proprement dite, ou qu'il devienne l'enseignement propre de l'adulte. C'est dans cet esprit de sagesse pratique qu'ont été récemment créés chez nous des cours additionnels d'une, de deux ou de trois années, destinés à prolonger l'école, pour ainsi dire, et à faire produire aux études élémentaires tous les fruits qu'il est possible d'en recueillir suivant les ressources locales, l'intérêt des familles et les dispositions des jeunes gens.

"Tout autre est l'enseignement secondaire spécial, tel que nous nous en faisons l'idée. Son objet est de fournir des *chefs* à cette armée de travailleurs que forme l'enseignement primaire, dans l'agriculture, dans le négoce, dans la banque, dans l'industrie dans les administrations des grandes compagnies, dans ce vaste domaine enfin qu'on appelle le monde des affaires. Or, pour être bien remplis, ces emplois de direction et de contrôle exigent, outre une certaine somme de notions scientifiques, la connaissance des théories auxquelles ces notions se rattachent, l'habitude des méthodes intellectuelles, et ce fonds d'idées générales qui peuvent seules donner à l'esprit de la rectitude et de l'étendue. C'est par ce côté que l'enseignement secondaire spécial se sépare de l'enseignement primaire et se rapproche de l'enseignement classique. Comme lui, il ne saurait se passer ni de suite ni de temps. C'est toute une éducation, en un mot; une éducation moins élevée, moins fine, d'une autre nature, que l'éducation classique, mais non d'un autre ordre."

And the comments of M. Duplan upon these considerations are equally valuable, and admirably define the functions of the true higher primary school as now understood in France* :—

"L'enseignement secondaire spécial et l'enseignement primaire supérieur répondent donc, ainsi que M. Gréard l'a si nettement indiqué, à des conceptions, à des besoins et à des clientèles absolument distincts : tandis que le premier doit être une des formes de l'enseignement classique, dont il ne s'écarte que parce qu'il remplace l'étude des langues anciennes par une étude plus approfondie des langues vivantes, de la littérature française, des sciences, mathématiques, physiques et naturelles; tandis qu'il s'adresse à cette partie de la classe moyenne qui dispose du temps

* L'enseignement primaire public à Paris, Vol. II., page 7.

et des ressources nécessaires pour faire donner à ses enfants une éducation complète sans être pressée de leur en faire tirer un profit matériel immédiat, l'autre a simplement pour objet d'affermir et de compléter les connaissances acquises au moyen de l'enseignement primaire. Il est la transition* naturelle, non pas entre l'enseignement primaire élémentaire et l'enseignement secondaire classique, mais bien plutôt entre les études primaires et les études d'applications professionnelles auxquelles il doit préparer ses élèves en leur donnant toutes les notions d'ordre pratique susceptibles d'être utilisées dans la majorité des carrières industrielles ou commerciales. La clientèle à laquelle il s'adresse ne peut disposer que d'un temps très limité, trois ou quatre années au maximum ; encore ces délais si courts sont-ils, bien souvent, abrégés par l'obligation impérieuse où se trouvent beaucoup d'élèves de chercher promptement un travail rémunérateur. La nécessité de faire vite, de conclure rapidement, s'impose donc à l'enseignement primaire supérieur. Sans négliger la culture intellectuelle et morale de ses élèves, il doit écarter tout ce qui aurait le caractère d'un simple ornement et songer surtout à ce qui peut avoir une utilité directe et pratique. C'est à lui, en un mot, qu'appartient le soin de fournir à la grande armée du travail et de l'industrie ses *sous-officiers*, tandis que, comme l'a dit M. Gréard, l'enseignement secondaire spécial a pour mission de lui préparer des *chefs*."

The reality of this distinction between modern secondary education and the education given in the higher primary schools, as well as the urgent need for some continuation of the elementary schools, did not fail to make itself felt in practice as the years passed. And the true idea of a "crowning" or completion of primary education was gradually grasped and put into execution by an increasing number of municipalities ; so that, in spite of the unfavourable conditions under which higher primary instruction still laboured since 1850, new schools continued to be founded in various places (Paris being specially energetic).

Tendency towards a more technical curriculum.

From this date, however, as a natural consequence of increasing commerce and industry, improvements in machinery, and alterations in the conditions of trade, the tendency towards a more technical type of higher primary schools became increasingly evident.

This tendency, while it involved somewhat of a departure from the original conception of their founder, M. Guizot, served the useful purpose of differentiating this type of education more

* It may be noted here that the word "transition" is important. Higher grade instruction is often spoken of in England as being "intermediary" between elementary education and secondary education. From an intellectual standpoint, and in an educational category, this is true ; but from the point of view of a boy's life, it does not necessarily hold. The one does not always lead satisfactorily to the other. True secondary education requires other foundation work than that of necessity given in an elementary school whose programme provides an education which must be *completed* by the age of 13. *Higher primary* education is on the contrary the true "transition" between elementary education and the practical applications of knowledge, both general and special, to particular occupations.

precisely from the "modern" schools, which had once threatened to extinguish them; and it undoubtedly responded to an increasing need of the day. But the bearing of this technical development will be dealt with more fully below; in the meantime it is sufficient to state that it aided considerably in preserving the existence of higher primary instruction through a most critical period of competition with other schools until more precise notions of their true functions could find place.

At last, in the later seventies, brighter days began to dawn for the higher primary schools; in 1878 a Commission was created to report upon their condition and their functions, and, if found worthy of, or in need of, State aid, to elaborate anew an effective organisation for them. And in the meantime their existence was officially recognised and encouraged, a little later in the same year, by the establishment of State grants in aid, for their creation and maintenance to the amount of 110,000 francs, a sum which was increased in the following year to 160,000. And in 1880 State bursaries were created to assist specially clever pupils of the elementary schools to avail themselves of higher primary instruction, who were unable, except by such aid, either to pay the set fees or to forego daily wages in order to attend school.

Increase of State aid.

But to give to these schools their due security, prestige, and importance, and to increase their numbers adequately from year to year, these subventions and indeterminate aids were not sufficient. And the authors of the Education Acts of the Third Republic, in their enthusiasm for education, were not unmindful of the distinction between higher primary instruction and the education given in secondary schools and colleges; and, when they set themselves to the task of reorganising the whole of public education, while preserving and developing the modern secondary, they took great pains also to reconstitute the higher primary instruction.

Their first step was in favour of schools providing *professionnel** or quasi-technical instruction, which had generally been called *professionnelles* or "apprenticeship" schools; and these were definitely made a part of primary instruction under State recognition with all the corresponding privileges pertaining thereto. This was effected by the Education Act of December 11th, 1880, which specially included among State-aided public

State organisation of apprenticeship schools.

* It may be mentioned that *enseignement technique* is the term now generally used to connote instruction in any particular branch of industry or commerce which is of as specific and practical a character as would be gained by an apprentice at the actual workshop or counting house. While *enseignement professionnel* is a wider term, embracing all instruction directed to a practical use in a given career; but used also in a more restricted sense, to connote instruction in the *principles* that underlie the practice of industry or commerce, and a general acquaintance with various forms of practical applications of these principles. Hence it may save confusion if the term *professionnel* is left untranslated throughout this memorandum, and the English words *technical instruction* reserved for the more restricted sense of definite trade instruction usually implied by the French term *enseignement technique*.

primary schools the apprentice schools that had been founded by the various communes and departments; and also assimilated to them all higher primary schools giving *professionnel* instruction. They were empowered to receive grants from the Department of Public Instruction, and also (for technical instruction purposes) from the Department of Commerce; and the curricula were to be drawn up according to programmes laid down by the founders and approved by both these Departments.

The ample recognition by the Government of the more technical class of higher primary schools shown in this Act of 1880 serves to prove the increasing interest that was now felt in the more *special* requirements of industrial education. That this practical bent was the direction which any extensive continuation of elementary instruction must necessarily take was pressed very strongly in the report which was published in 1881 by the Commission that had been appointed to inquire into the question of a scheme for higher primary instruction throughout the country with a view to its reorganisation and general equipment. As this report has had very considerable influence in determining the subsequent developments of higher primary schools in France, and deals with an aspect of the question which is of great interest and importance, and is much debated at the present moment in England, it may be of service to quote some of its leading points :—

Commission report upon the needs of higher primary education.

"L'enseignement primaire supérieur prend en ce moment dans notre pays un essor d'autant plus heureux qu'il a été spontané. Dès 1878, pressentant avec une grande clairvoyance que l'organisation de cet enseignement serait un des premiers besoins de la République, un de mes honorables prédécesseurs proposait au Parlement une loi qui devait prescrire l'établissement d'écoles primaires supérieures et en régler les conditions d'existence. Ce projet n'eut pas de suite, et l'enseignement nouveau qu'il avait pour but de constituer n'en a pas moins pris naissance, tant il répondait à l'entente publique et à de réelles nécessités. Mais, au lieu de se conformer à un type uniforme et préconcu, il s'est prêté à la diversité même des situations qui l'avaient fait éclaré : ici, c'est un grand établissement municipal ou départemental : là, c'est à peine une classe distincte de l'école ordinaire. Tantôt il offre à des fils, à des filles de cultivateurs ou d'artisans un utile complément d'études générales avec un commencement d'études spéciales, c'est-à-dire, d'apprentissage ; tantôt il conduit ses élèves aux écoles d'arts et métiers ; tantôt il prépare ou il conserve à notre corps enseignant des recrues précieuses, dans les années de transition qui séparent la sortie de l'école élémentaire de l'entrée à l'école normale.

Variety of curriculum.

"À travers tant d'aspects divers, on peut cependant, dès à présent, discerner les traits généraux qui caractérisent et qui définissent l'enseignement nouveau dans l'esprit des populations qui le recherchent avec un si louable empressement.

"D'une part, on veut qu'il reste primaire, d'autre part, on veut qu'il soit professionnel. Quelques mots suffiront pour préciser cette double tendance.

"Qu'il reste primaire, c'est la première indication qui se dégage de l'expérience. Il ne faut pas que l'enseignement primaire supérieur s'isole et vise à une sorte d'existence à part. Si haut et si loin qu'on doive aller, il est bon qu'on s'appuie toujours de quelque façon sur l'école populaire. S'il affectait de s'en séparer par ses programmes, par le choix des maîtres, par le recrutement des élèves, par le ton général des études ou par le niveau des examens, il perdrait le meilleur de sa substance et, à vrai dire, il n'aurait plus de raison d'être. C'est ce que redoutaient de bons esprits à l'origine du movement. Il leur semblait à craindre que la vanité des familles, peut-être l'amour-propre des municipalités intervenant, l'enseignement primaire supérieur ne sortît bien vite de ses cadres, jugés trop modestes, et ne devint tôt ou tard une contrefaçon malheureuse de l'enseignement secondaire spécial.

Primary not secondary in character,

"Le bon sens de notre pays a partout démenti ces appréhensions. Laissées à elles-mêmes, ni les familles ni les communes n'ont commis la faute de vouloir que l'établissement nouveau fût un collège dégénéré au lieu d'être une école perfectionnée; et les écoles primaires supérieures qui existent ou qui naissent aujourd'hui se sont organisées de manière à former le large couronnement d'une éducation première menée à bien et non pas le commencement stérile d'un autre cycle d'études qui n'aboutiraient pas. C'est à l'enseignement primaire qu'elles demandent une élite de maîtres et *une élite d'élèves*, comme c'est aux méthodes primaires qu'elles empruntent l'esprit de leurs programmes qui est d'affermir le savoir plus encore que de l'étendre, de l'approfondir et non de le disperser, et de donner à l'esprit une trempe forte plutôt qu'un brillant vernis.

"Mais en même temps, et par une marche des choses non moins spontanée, les écoles primaires supérieures tendent à revêtir à des degrés divers, le caractère d'écoles professionnelles. Les élèves de l'école primaire supérieure sont quelque chose de plus que des écoliers: ce seraient des apprentis déjà dispersés dans les ateliers, si l'école, pour les retenir, ne se transformait elle-même, dans une certaine mesure, en atelier. De là vient que, de toutes nos écoles primaires supérieures, aucune n'a pu s'enfermer exclusivement dans les études proprement dites; elles ont dû s'associer aux légitimes préoccupations des familles et répartir leur temps, ce temps pris sur la durée ordinaire de l'apprentissage, de telle sorte que l'enfant, bien loin d'être ou retardé ou désorienté au sortir de l'école, se trouve en état d'entrer de plain-pied dans la carrière du travail avec des ressources et des facilités nouvelles. De là aussi l'impossibilité de les réduire toutes à un type unique: elles doivent, pour trouver le succès, s'adapter, dans toute la partie professionnelle, aux circonstances et aux nécessités locales: elles sont tenues d'acheminer leurs élèves non pas théoriquement vers toutes les

and extremely practical.

professions, mais positivement vers celles auxquelles les prédestine le milieu natal. C'est à ce prix que nos écoles primaires supérieures conserveront et verront croître de jour en jour la juste popularité qui les entoure.

"Les Chambres et le Gouvernement ne pouvaient mieux faire que de s'inspirer d'un sentiment public si sage en lui-même et si clairement manifesté. La loi du 11 Décembre 1880 sur les écoles d'apprentissage à fait entrer dans les cadres de l'enseignement primaire tous les établissements qui ont pour objet d'associer à des études primaires complémentaires le commencement de l'apprentissage professionnel. Par cette mesure si simple et d'une si grande portée sociale, le Parlement n'assurait pas seulement des ressources et une situation légale à quelques établissements nouveaux; il tranchait la question de savoir jusqu'où vont, en matière d'ensignement primaire supérieure, les besoins de la nation et les obligations de l'État."

1881. Free education.

The following year witnessed the Free Education Act, which declared that all public primary schools were free; and, as the Act of 1880 had expressly included higher primary (professional) schools in the list of public primary schools, an immense help was thus incidentally given to the development of higher primary instruction throughout the country,

Great Education Act of 1886 organising higher primary schools.

We next come to the great Education Act of 1886, which did almost more in France for the organisation of popular education than the Act of 1870 did in England. In defining primary education this Act expresely included both higher primary and *professionnel* instruction within its scope in its first article, thus:—

"Article 1^er^. L'enseignement primaire est donné:

"1°. Dans les écoles maternelles et les classes enfantines;

"2°. Dans les écoles primaires élémentaires;

"3°. Dans les écoles primaires supérieures et dans les classes d'enseignement primaire supérieur annexées aux écoles élémentaires et dites cours complémentaires;

"4°. Dans les écoles manuelles d'apprentissage, telles que les définit la loi du 11 Décembre 1880."

Under this Act, therefore, all higher primary schools, non-technical as well as technical, which were willing to conform to the general Government requirements, obtained the same rights to State support and State inspection as elementary schools, and necessarily came under the Free Education Act. This Act was followed in January 1887 by a Décret and an Arrêté, which laid down the various conditions to be observed by the different classes of schools entitled to State aid. These measures gave the first clear definitions as to what was held to constitute higher primary instruction and as to the proper organisation for higher primary schools. (The *écoles manuelles d'apprentissage* will be dealt with subsequently.)

The following are the main points:—

Article 30. The *établissements d'enseignement primaire supérieur* are called *cours complémentaire*, if they are annexed to an *école primaire élémentaire*, and are under the same director. They are called *école primaire supérieure* if they are established in a distinct locality, and are under a different director from the *école élémentaire*. The amalgamation of an *école primaire supérieure* and an *école élémentaire*, so as to bring them into the same scholastic group, may be authorised by the Education Department after notice from the local authority. Titles.

The course of studies for the *cours complémentaires* extends over a period of two years at most. They include at most, however great the number of pupils may be, two divisions, which may be under the control of the same master. Course.

The *école primaire supérieure* covers a course of at least two years of study. If it covers three or more years, it is called a full course (*école de plein exercice*).

Article 35. The *primaire supérieure* course comprises a *résumé* of the work done in the *école primaire élémentaire* (the subjects being dealt with more deeply) and also the following subjects*:— Curriculum.

Applied arithmetic.
The elements of practical algebraical and geometrical work.
The rules of ordinary accounts and book-keeping.
Elementary natural and physical science as applied to agriculture, manufacture, and hygiene.
Geometrical model and ornamental drawing.
The elements of common law and political economy.
Elementary French history and literature.
The principal epochs of general history more especially those of modern times.
Industrial and commercial history.
Modern languages.
Working in wood and metal for boys.
Needlework, cutting out, and dressmaking for girls.

Article 36. The general divisions of the teaching in the *écoles primaires supérieures* and in the *cours complémentaires* are determined by a ministerial decree issued according to the recommendations of the *conseil supérieur*.

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* The following important decision upon this section was subsequently officially given when the question of the admissibility of a more varied curriculum was raised:—"The *enseignement primaire supérieur* is not strictly limited within the "bounds of fixed and invariable programmes, and the decree of the 15th of January "1881 only fixes a minimum programme and sketches out the subjects for it. "Masters of *enseignement primaire supérieur* do not, therefore, contravene the "powers given them by law when they exceed this programme, provided that they "keep its distinctive character, and do not confound it with *enseignement secondaire* "*classique* or *enseignement secondaire spécial*."

Article 37. In each establishment the detailed programmes and time-tables are to be made out (within the limits prescribed by the Education Department) by the head master and the various professors, subject to the approval of the *inspecteur d'académie.*

Conditions of entrance.

Article 38. No pupil can enter either an *école primaire supérieure* or a *cours complémentaire* unless he holds the *certificat d'études primaires.*

Article 39. The *cours complémentaire* must always be held in a separate class-room. The *école primaire supérieure* must have as many separate class-rooms as it has "years" in its course; and in addition a room for drawing, which shall be capable of holding, should there not be a special room for the purpose, the teaching apparatus and models. It must have a gymnasium attached.

All establishments for *enseignement primaire supérieur* must be provided, like the *écoles primaires élémentaires,* with a workshop in which instruction in manual work may be given.

State aid and scholarships.

Article 40. The *établissements publics d'enseignement primaire supérieur* may receive, according to the limits imposed by the budget of public instruction—

1st. State scholarships, under the conditions set forth in section 3 of this Act.

2nd. Grants of school apparatus.

3rd. Grants for the salaries of teachers.

Article 41. Communes which ask for grants from the Minister of Public Instruction for the founding or the maintenance of an *établissement d'enseignement primaire supérieur,* whether in the form of fixed grant or of national scholarships, must bind themselves to maintain their establishment for at least five years in accordance with the legal regulations as to fixed obligatory expenditure.

And the *Arrêté Organique* of January 18th, 1887, gave the following additional regulations:—

Article 24. The length and the limits of the *enseignement primaire supérieur* in the *écoles publiques* for each of the compulsory subjects are set forth in the programme annexed to this decree.

Article 25. But accessory courses, appertaining more particularly to the manufactures of the locality may be authorised by the Minister, if the committee of patronage should ask for and the *inspecteur d'académie* propose them.

Article 26. In the first three "years" of *enseignement primaire supérieur* there will be on an average six hours of class work per diem (Sundays and Thursdays excepted). The division of time will be so managed as to give about nine hours per week to literature, morality, and civic instruction, the French language,

history, and geography; nine hours to scientific instruction (mathematics, natural and physical science, and instruction walks); four hours to modern languages; three hours to drawing; four hours to manual work, and one hour to music.

Article 27. Gymnastic and military exercises will take place outside ordinary class hours.

In the fourth year, and in the *années supérieures*, the time devoted to manual work and *professionnel* instruction may be increased; *but ten hours at least per week must be devoted to other subjects.*

Article 30. Every pupil, no matter whence he comes, must on entering the *école primaire supérieure* undergo an examination before the head master, a master on the literary side, and a master on the science side; and on this examination will depend the particular "year" or "course" in which he will be placed.

These measures were accompanied by a detailed syllabus of studies in each of the prescribed subjects, for girls as well as for boys, intended for the general guidance of school managers and inspectors. *See* Appendix III. for the latest form of this.

Under this legislation the higher primary schools (properly so called) were intended to provide a course of instruction of a strictly general character; and, though the needs of the locality were allowed to be considered, and to give a particular "bent" to the character of the teaching, there was as yet no provision (except in the course of the fourth "year," which was necessarily limited to the very few pupils who could afford to remain so long at school) for teaching any subject or subjects in a manner specially suitable whether for an industrial or for a commercial, or, still less, for an agricultural career.

Followed by the organisation of a more technical type of schools, called *écoles primaires professionelles.*

As a matter of fact, it was intended that schools which provided any *special* instruction of this character were to be considered as coming under the head of *écoles primaires professionnelles* (which had been assimilated to the *écoles manuelles d'apprentissage*, and had already been given State recognition and aid under the Act of 1880). Therefore the next Act of the Legislature was to do the same service for these *écoles professionnelles*, and to define more precisely what was intended to be the scope and functions of this latter class of establishments, if they desired to come under State privileges.

Under dual control.

This was effected by the decrees of March 17 and July 28, 1888, which placed this category of schools under the double authority of the Minister of Public Instruction and the Minister of Commerce and Industry,* and arranged for the inspection of the general study by the former, and of the commercial and industrial teaching by the latter; while all reports con-

* They were called officially "Écoles d'enseignement primaire supérieur ou "complémentaire, comprenant des cours ou des classes d'enseignement profes- "sionnel."

cerning the schools were to be addressed to both Ministries (Article 23).

Their special curriculum.

The scope of the teaching in these *écoles professionnelles* was declared to be simply (i) a completion of primary instruction, and (ii) *professionnel* instruction preparing directly for either industry or commerce. The time devoted to each branch of instruction was to be different in the two sections of the school*; thus the industrial section gave from three to five hours a week to manual instruction, and one hour to science applied to industry. These were replaced in the commercial section by two hours for modern languages and three hours for commercial subjects. The divisions of the day's work could be modified in any school by a special programme; but the Government took special pains to preserve the particular character of these schools by requiring the sanction of both Ministers before extra hours could be given to any subject.

The course of studies was to be a minimum of three years.

The general rules of admission were that no child can be admitted under 12 years of age, and that every candidate, as in the higher primary schools, must possess the primary certificate (*see* footnote to page 5 above), or in default of this must submit to an equivalent examination open to those who are over 13 only, and are free from compulsory school attendance. When there is a deficiency of places a competitive examination is held, by a Commission, in the subjects required for the primary certificate, and in handicraft, the latter giving only one-tenth of the total of marks.

By a circular of June 30, 1888, the inspectors who visited these *écoles professionnelles* were instructed:—"D'étudier les "besoins locaux au point de vue de la direction à donner à "l'enseignement professionnel, de se rendre compte de la valeur "et de l'état de l'outillage et des améliorations qu'il y aurait lieu "d'y apporter, de surveiller les méthodes, enfin de renseigner les "deux administrations de l'instruction publique et du commerce "sur tout ce qu'il serait utile de faire pour rendre l'enseignement "aussi pratique que possible."

While the local authorities were by the same circular instructed to "provoquer la régularisation de toutes les écoles primaires "supérieures existantes, qui donnent l'enseignement professionnel "ou qui ont le caractère d'écoles manuelles d'apprentissage. "D'après les instructions ministérielles, toute commune qui "possède une école primaire supérieure doit être appelée à émettre "un avis sur la question de savoir si elle entend que son école "soit placée sous le régime technique, c'est-à-dire, sous le régime "déterminé par le règlement du 17 Mars 1888, ou si elle désire, "au contraire, que l'école soit maintenue sous le régime exclu-"sivement universitaire."† And it was decreed that in future

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* *i.e.*, the commercial and industrial sections. No agricultural section was as yet (July 1888) contemplated.

† *i.e.*, under the Ministry of Public Instruction only.

no new school could be established, comprising special commercial or industrial sections, unless it were placed under this dual *régime*.

* * * * *

The dual category of higher primary schools.

Thus in the year 1888 schools which professed to give a continuation of education to boys or girls leaving the elementary schools were constrained to range themselves under one of two categories:—A., those giving general instruction only, which were under the control and grants of the Minister of Public Instruction only, and were spoken of as *écoles primaires supérieures;* and B., those giving any strictly *professionnel* instruction, which were under the *condominium* (as it is called) of the Minister of Public Instruction and the Minister of Commerce and Industry, and were intended "to give specialised instruction "for individual professions in commerce or industry, and to "develop in youths destined for manual occupations the "dexterity and the technical information necessary thereto." (M. Cohendy.) The latter were generally spoken of as *écoles professionnelles*.

Under dual control.

This dual control still exists at the present day. It might be supposed that the double interference of two sets of inspectors, and the presentation of all reports, to two Ministries, in the case of schools giving *professionnel* instruction, would have been found extremely inconvenient, but, as a matter of fact, little difficulty has at present arisen, owing to the simple fact that, though seven years have elapsed since the passing of the Act and the issuing of the circular above mentioned, only 17 schools in the whole of France have at present placed themselves under the double *régime* of the two Ministries as *écoles primaires professionnelles*. It must not be supposed, however, that all the remaining higher primary schools, numbering some hundreds, give no *professionnel* instruction, and have no "special" sections.*

Difficulty of enforcing this dual system.

It only means that the central authority has not yet succeeded in making the spirit of uniformity of *classification* permeate sufficiently into the various localities, and, still more, that the great variety of local requirements which have called forth a correspondingly great variety of school curricula, make it impossible for every school to be brought into line under any particular one of the departmental categories. And, after all, what is felt to be of infinitely more importance than uniformity of classification, is that the variety of type should exist, and the variety of needs be variously supplied, under an elastic arrangement of distributing that State aid which is expressly intended to minister to what are national (and therefore of necessity *various*) requirements.

Thus the close of 1888 witnessed a fairly complete theoretical organisation of higher primary instruction sanctioned and aided by the State, with adequate provision for a *professionnel* as distinguished from a simply literary education. It is true the

* On the contrary, the great majority of higher primary schools have at least two special sections, and follow the official programmes of the *condominium* schools.

provision of higher primary schools was not now (as it was under M. Guizot's law of 1833) made compulsory upon towns of a certain size, but the chief commercial and industrial localities were not slow to avail themselves of the facilities thus offered to them. Already, indeed, the previous 10 years had witnessed an increase of tenfold in the number of higher primary schools throughout the country of one kind or another, and it was this great increase which had induced the State to introduce legislation for organising them, as we have above described. And at the close of the year 1888, when the new legislation was completed, there were altogether 302 higher primary schools (including those of both categories), and 431 *cours complémentaires* (*i.e.*, higher primary courses attached to elementary schools), those for boys being twice as numerous as those for girls.

Variety and increase of higher primary provision.

Defects.

But after some years' experience of the new regulations for higher primary schools, various defects were found to be existing and to be rapidly increasing. These defects are worth notice, as similar difficulties have often arisen under like circumstances in England, and it was through the attempts made to remedy these defects that the French system has received the most important and characteristic modifications which differentiate it from somewhat similar organisations in England.

(*a*) Confusion between ex-standard classes and higher primary schools.

(*a.*) Under Article 30 of the Act of 1886, and again under the Act of 1889, the so-called *cours complémentaires* attached to elementary schools (corresponding more or less to our ex-7th Standard classes) were considered as being establishments of the same nature and degree as the *écoles primaires supérieures* (or higher grade schools, as we should call them), which were in separate and distinct buildings; while the staff of the former was in reality far less capable than, and the level of instruction and range of subjects very inferior to, that in the latter. Thus many pupils who would have profited greatly by entering a higher primary school and following the full course, had been misled into staying at ex-Standard classes, where the instruction practically differed but little from that of the higher classes of the elementary school, and the recruiting of the higher primary schools had (it was said) consequently suffered unnecessarily,* while the interests of specially clever pupils, who would have profited by a higher primary school course, had been gravely hindered.

At the same time salaries were being paid at a needlessly expensive rate to the teachers in *cours complémentaires*, who were in reality only doing the work of the standards in elementary schools. And, lastly, the statistics of the *cours complémentaires* gave a misleading impression of the extension of higher primary instruction throughout the country, an impression

* This can only have occurred very rarely, for there are barely half-a-dozen towns in the whole of France which maintain both *cours complémentaires* and also an *école primaire supérieure*. But it may possibly have militated against the establishment of new higher primary schools in those localities where it was thought (erroneously) that the *cours complémentaires* sufficed for all the educational needs of the locality.

which the level of the instruction actually given in these classes (as distinguished from the *écoles primaires supérieures*) did not really warrant.

To remedy these evils a new regulation was issued in 1893, which is still in force. This strictly limited the *cours complémentaire* to a *one year's* course of study; and any pupil who studies for a second year is only permitted to *redoubler*, *i.e.*, to go over again *the same* course as the previous year; and it was clearly stated that the *cours complémentaires* are only a continuation and "deepening" of elementary studies, and are intended to add but little really *new* developments, such as can be found in true higher primary schools. Attempt to remedy this.

The *école primaire supérieure*, on the other hand, must arrange its curriculum for a course of three years. In certain cases a minimum of two years is permitted, but the school is not then allowed to rank as a school of *plein exercice*, and it forfeits certain privileges.

(*b.*) Moreover, it was also found that both for the *cours complémentaires* and also for the *écoles primaires supérieures*, the standard for admission had been fixed too low. The only limit had been the possession of the *certificat d'études primaires élémentaires;* and this had led to a very serious debasement of the general attainments of the scholars in the higher primary schools and courses. Thus M. Martel, in his report on the condition of these schools,* writes :— *Defects.* (*b*) Lowering of the standard of admission.

"The Education Act of 1882 unfortunately permitted children to go up for the *certificat d'études primaires* so soon as they had reached the age of 11 years; the examination for the certificate was hardly greater in difficulty than that of the *cours moyen* of the elementary schools; and, as its possession gave the students the right of entering the classes of *enseignement supérieur*, certain unfortunate results have occurred in the greater number of communities possessing a *cours complémentaire*, viz., that the children who enter it have in the majority of cases obtained their *certificat d'études primaires* between the ages of 11 and 12, and on leaving the *cours moyen* have at once entered (without any intermediary preparation) the *cours complémentaire*, which is thus in reality nothing else than the *cours supérieur* of the elementary school under another name. And so it might be said that the greater number of *cours complémentaires* are merely 'blinds,' very advantageous, no doubt, for the master, who, as the head of a so-called *cours complémentaire*, draws a much higher salary than that of a simple elementary schoolmaster, but very onerous for the municipality and for the State, whose expenses are thus greatly augmented without the least profit. I consider that a thorough revision of the situation is necessary in this respect."

Accordingly, the new regulations of 1893 have sought to remedy this by requiring that no pupil be admitted into either Attempt to remedy this.

* *Musée Pédagogique*, Fascicule No. 9, 2nd series, p. 20.

a *cours complémentaire* or a higher primary school, unless—in addition to having obtained the *certificat d'études*—he has passed a full year in the upper standard of the elementary school.

These new arrangements will, in process of time, do much to raise the general level of higher primary instruction. But for the moment it has been found impossible to enforce strictly the regulation which requires a full year to be spent in the upper standard of the elementary school before admission into an *école primaire supérieure* or a *cours complémentaire*, because there are still many localities where the higher standards do not exist in the elementary schools. But the inspectors are instructed to urge the creation of these standards, and to bring such pressure to bear as will retain for a longer period in the elementary school such children as are willing to continue their education after obtaining their elementary certificate,* so that the higher standards in the elementary schools may gradually come into general use. Thus, while the recruitment of the higher primary schools and courses will diminish for a time, yet their intellectual standard will gradually be raised, and in the end the results obtained will be better from every point of view.

Defects.

(*c*) Too literary in their results.

(*c.*) There was, however, yet another defect of a much more serious character which was laid to the charge of the higher primary schools. It was thus characterised by M. Martel in the year 1888, and is spoken of frequently at the present day in similar terms:—

"We find ourselves forced to admit that the actual state of this branch of education leaves a great deal to be desired. A great deal of energy is doubtless expended by devoted and painstaking masters, to whose zeal we are delighted to render homage; nevertheless, we regret to say that up to the present day the results are but mediocre. In too many localities people have not understood in the past, and they do not yet understand, what *l'enseignement primaire supérieur* ought to be. At the present day the elementary school—the simple village school—offers to the child of the most humble grade of society all the various branches of knowledge that were included by M. Guizot in 1833 in the curriculum of *higher* primary instruction.† Under such changed circumstances it must be distinctly recognised that there is now no necessity for the existence of the higher primary school—that it is, in fact, condemned by the force of circumstances to be nothing but a miserable imitation of secondary education establishments—unless the education that is provided by it be essentially practical and *professionnel*. In a time when our agriculture is languishing; when our trade is painfully battling against foreign competition; when even that taste

The need for a more technical curriculum.

* As this certificate is usually obtained at 11 years of age by the cleverer scholars, and 12 years of age by the average scholar, many children thus, in France as in England, leave the elementary schools without reaching the higher standards.

† Compare Mr. Yoxall's words, "The secondary education of one age is the primary of the next."—*Leeds Mercury*, April 11, 1896.

which has been for so long the distinguishing character of our artistic products seems no longer to be an uncontested monopoly for us; when from neighbouring countries emigrants, young, active, and well educated, are spreading in every direction, and seeking to oust us from every commercial market; it has become imperative that we should at any cost and without delay produce clever and educated workers—workers for the fields and the farms, for the factory and for the workshop. This must be the *rôle* of those of our schools which retain on their benches thousands of the children of the lower middle classes between the ages of 12 and 17. If, by too theoretical an education, such as our masters are now giving nearly everywhere, we induce these children (most of whom are already inclined that way by the mistaken pride of their parents) on leaving school to swell the already overflowing ranks of writers, office clerks, and competitors for minor posts in Government offices, we shall have spent the money of the communes and of the State upon a work not only useless but even dangerous; for with the millions thus improperly spent we shall have led away from productive occupations hundreds of youths who under better guidance would have been useful to themselves, to society, and to their country, and made of them in one word *déclassés*.* In this matter reform is urgently necessary; we must revise our curriculum. A child at the higher primary school must pass far more time than is now the case in the workshop, in the garden, or in the demonstrating fields; the time given to book and pen must be lessened, the time given to the plane, the file, or the spade greatly increased."

Attempts to remedy this.

This was undoubtedly a very grave indictment against the higher primary schools in France, and one which has been urged by many of the most thoughtful of the modern educationalists. But even at the date when M. Martel wrote this criticism, the local authorities had themselves begun to realise the needs of their time, and had introduced into a great number of schools the more practical bent which he desiderates; and there were a large and increasing proportion of the higher primary schools which—in addition to "general" education—had established special sections for *professionnel* instruction whether in industry or commerce or agriculture. This possibility was of course already vaguely recognised and provided for under the Government scheme, which admitted of *professionnel* instruction in the *condominium* schools, where the Minister of Commerce was held responsible for the technical side of the work.

Development of technical instruction.

But as the demand for, and provision of, this technical instruction in higher primary schools gradually increased, and as, furthermore, it was found that in some of the schools the technical instruction was beginning to *exceed*, and even sometimes almost

* This single expressive term is constantly heard in discussions upon the higher primary schools, so it may perhaps be usefully kept untranslated here.

to oust, the "general" instruction, the Government decided that it was time to make some new and more convenient arrangements for supervising, and guiding upon right lines, this new form of education, on which (it was felt) the future prosperity of the country so largely depended.

Hence we arrive at the next great legislative change which was effected under the Act of January 26th, 1892, now in force. This Act is of great interest in view of similar, as also of contrary, proposals now under discussion in England; for one of its chief points was to emphasize the need for, and to improve the supply of, "technical instruction," and to organise it afresh upon more scientific lines. With this object it removed from the Ministry of Public Instruction those of the *écoles primaires supérieures professionnelles* (that is to say, schools in Category B. on page 365 above) *in which the "professionnel" element predominated*, and placed them entirely under the Ministry of Commerce and Industry under the new title of *écoles pratiques de commerce et d'industrie*.

1892. Creation of a new category of technical schools.

The particular reason for this change may perhaps be found in the fact that the Ministry of Commerce and Industry had recently created a special department for technical instruction, and that new ideas were rapidly spreading as to the best organisation of education, and these ideas tended to dissociate technical instruction more and more from the domain of the Ministry of Education, whose traditions and tendencies were felt to be of a too decidedly literary character.*

In this connexion it may be again noted in parenthesis that this legislation does not give to the central authority a deciding voice as to what is to be the character of the school or schools established in any locality; it merely affords an organisation, so to speak, to which local authorities can, if they choose, affiliate their schools if they decide to shape (or have already shaped) their curriculum in a more definitely technical direction. As a matter of fact, there were already several municipal schools in existence giving admirable technical instruction; and it was the purpose of the Government to aid such schools, and to encourage the creation of many more of the same type, as responding to the chief need of modern France. It had also become evident that a great number of the schools established in various towns as higher primary schools, and obtaining grants under that

Reasons for this step.

* The organisation of *professionnel* education in France cannot be adequately treated within the limits of this memorandum; suffice it to say that (i) as far as the *higher* branches are concerned, special instruction for each of the "professions" is supervised by the Department of State responsible for that "profession"; thus the Naval Schools are under the Naval Department, the Military School of St. Cyr under the War Office, the École des Ponts et Chaussées under the Public Works Department, the Écoles d'Agriculture under the Agricultural Department, and the Higher Commercial Schools under the Ministry of Commerce; while (ii.) in its *lower* grades it was commenced under the Ministry of Primary Instruction, and then shared with the Ministry of Commerce, and, finally, taken over definitely by the Technical Instruction Bureau of the latter Ministry. The Ministry of Primary Instruction now permits a non-trade or general *professionnel* instruction in its schools; this, however, is under the additional inspection of the technical bureau inspectors, and is intended to be wholly educative in character.

designation (sometimes without even being under the *condominium*) were giving but little "general instruction," and were in fact simply and solely *technical* schools. And since a department of technical instruction now existed for the express purpose of supervising and giving grants to technical schools, it was manifestly an anomaly that these schools should remain under the Ministry of Public Instruction. Hence the new regulation.

It is naturally a matter of considerable difficulty to draw the line between one school and another, and to decide in which case the *professionnel* instruction *preponderates* over the "general" and in which case it does not; a question which, since the passing of the new Act, has had to be constantly raised for administrative purposes, in order to decide under which *régime* the school is to be placed for grant and inspection purposes. At present only 21 schools in all France have thus been designated as *écoles pratiques*, under the Department of Technical Instruction; 15 of them have industrial sections only, the remainder comprise both commercial and industrial sections, but there is no doubt that there are many other higher primary schools which, in theory, should be transferred to the Technical Instruction Department if regard were had to the programme which they follow in their course of studies.*

And as it is now considered in France a matter of considerable importance to extend the provision of technical instruction,† and of even greater importance to take steps to develop it on the best possible lines, the Government is anxious to bring the Technical Education Department as far as possible into closer relations with higher primary schools giving *professionnel* instruction, since it is by these schools that they can best put technical instruction within the reach of the people in every corner of the country.

Difficulty of enforcing the classification.

But local authorities are slow to move in a matter of mere classification, for they prefer the state of things to which they have long been accustomed rather than risk the troubles of a new form of inspection by a new department. Hence it has been found necessary to form a Commission to investigate the condition of all the higher primary schools, and to decide in accordance with their curricula (subject to the wishes of the local authority) whether they shall come under the supervision and grants of the

* In some cases it is exceedingly difficult to classify the school. In one town, for example, there is an *école primaire supérieure* with 300 pupils in which the curriculum of a technical school would be perfectly suitable for 100 of the pupils, and the curriculum of an *école primaire supérieure* would be suitable for the other 200. And it would be all but impossible to change this establishment either into an *école pratique* or into a true higher primary school; for in the first case the interests of two-thirds of the scholars would be sacrificed, and in the second those of the other third.

† "Technical instruction," wrote M. Buisson in 1887, "ought to be spread everywhere in France, and should reach the whole of the nation; it must not be the monopoly of some dozens of masters and of some hundreds of pupils. It is to be desired that it shall become one of the essential factors of our popular education; and that, wherever there may be found a collection of children of the age of 12 who intend going in for agriculture, trade, or business, there shall be found at hand an agricultural, industrial, or business school, properly organised, adapted to their requirements, and suitable for helping them to attain the end which they have in view."

Ministry of Technical Education as *écoles pratiques*, or shall remain under the Ministry of Public Instruction as giving "general" instruction, or, again, under the *condominium* as giving general instruction, with additional special sections for industrial or commercial studies.*

The Commission is composed of the Vice-recteur of the Academy of Paris, four delegates of the Ministry of Public Instruction, and four delegates of the Ministry of Commerce and Industry.

Object and purpose of these *écoles pratiques*.

As the question of differentiating between various shades of technical and quasi-technical schools has occasioned some difficulty in England, it may be as well to quote here the departmental circular of the Ministry of Technical Instruction,† which describes the purposes and methods of the *écoles pratiques*, as they are at present understood, and lays down the conditions of admission, &c. The circular also makes clear what are the distinctive features of this particular type of continuation school as distinguished from the true higher primary schools.

"It must be clearly understood that the *écoles pratiques* differ essentially from higher primary schools. In the latter *a part* only of the curriculum is devoted to *professionnel* instruction, and they have for their object simply a preparation for an after-apprenticeship. Whereas the former have a distinctly different character, which it may be well to indicate with some precision at this point; they are destined to turn out commercial employés and artisans ready prepared for being *immediately* used at the desk or in the workshop. . . . We should not of course for a moment contest the benefits of a good *general education*, it is a solid basis which increases a man's worth and renders more profitable whatever technical knowledge he may have acquired. Nor is there the least intention of proscribing it in the *école pratique*. The students will necessarily receive there a completion of their primary education; moreover, they will only be admitted there after fulfilling the educational requirements laid down by the Act of March 28th, 1882. But special attention will, in addition to this, be given to the special needs of commerce and of industry. Every day the mercantile struggle between nations becomes fiercer, and the difficulties of business become greater. The arts have experienced a great transformation. Everything is sacrificed to one end, and that is to produce quickly and cheaply; and on account of the division of labour, and the use of machinery, apprenticeship at the workshop scarcely exists nowadays, except under abnormal circumstances. And the present changes which have been introduced in tools has demonstrated more clearly than ever before the necessity of possessing workmen who have some theoretical knowledge sufficient for and adapted to

* It is believed that the latter category will probably in time disappear as technical instruction increases in the higher primary schools, and the Minister of Public Instruction will be left with only those schools that give "general" or literary instruction.

† Circulaire No. 19, Ministère du Commerce. Direction de l'Enseignement Industriel et Commercial, June 20, 1893.

the changing needs of the workshop. It has become a matter of crying moment, which cannot be ignored, that we should fill up the blank which has thus, by the force of circumstances, been created in our commercial and industrial organisation. It has become absolutely necessary to put at the disposal of our commercial houses well-educated assistants, and to furnish our manufacturers with properly qualified workmen. It is the duty of the *écoles pratiques* to fulfil this task,* and you will be good enough to bear these considerations in mind when you are arranging the direction which is to be given to the studies in those schools."

It will thus be seen that the chief characteristic which differentiates the higher primary *professionnel* schools from the higher primary schools properly so-called is not only the amount of time given to manual and professional instruction, but also the more *specialised* character of that instruction.

There were, therefore, in 1892 three categories of State-aided schools, maintained by the municipalities, which were intended to provide instruction for children on leaving the elementary schools; namely:—

Three existing categories of higher primary schools.

(*a.*) Those for general instruction only, under the Minister of Public Instruction.

(*b.*) Those giving a certain amount of *professionnel* instruction in addition to "general" education (at present under the *condominium* of both Ministries); and

(*c.*) Those in which the *professionnel* instruction predominates and is of a more specialised character, *i.e.*, the *écoles pratiques*, under the Ministry of Commerce and Industry.

The organisation of the *écoles pratiques* has remained unaltered from 1892 up to the present time, but the next stage of development of the higher primary schools properly so called is of considerable interest.

1893. Considerable development of higher primary schools.

One of the first events after (and possibly in consequence of) the transference of the third category of schools to the Ministry of Commerce was a wide and far-reaching change in the code of higher primary schools that were still under the Minister of Public Instruction, a change in the direction of much greater latitude for increased *professionnel* instruction.

Curriculum in a practical direction.

The principal change enacted by these new regulations (1893) is that every higher primary school can have (in addition to its "general education" course) special sections, with separate appropriate programmes for each, whether industrial, commercial,

* The need for such schools as these *écoles pratiques* for replacing the lost system of apprenticeship by some new form of training has become in France, as in England, one of the great questions of the day. Compare Sir W. Hart Dyke's speech, April 14th, 1896, at the opening of the Bath Technical Schools, when he used almost identical phrases with regard to England. "We have now no apprentice system "in the country, and our industries have suffered in the interval between the "abolition of the apprentice system and the taking up of the new movement."—*Western Daily Press*, April 15, 1896.

agricultural, or otherwise.* The details of this new regulation and the arrangements of these different sections has been dealt with fully in the earlier portion of this memorandum.

This change in the direction of giving a vastly increased quantum of quasi-technical instruction to the population of the working classes all over the country in place of the "general education," which has hitherto predominated, is one of supreme importance in the history of education and of the French people. It is one which England has already accepted as inevitable, though she is slow in bringing it about in her primary schools. In view of its importance it may be well perhaps to quote at length the ministerial circular of February 15th, 1893, which explains the reasons and the objects of the new scheme, and seeks to justify the particular means that have been adopted for successfully putting into practice the new theories of public education on which it is based. The circular gives practically the whole theory and practice of the *écoles primaires supérieures* as at present understood and organised in France, and thus brings us to the last stage that higher primary instruction has attained up to this date in the gradual process of its evolution, though it must still be considered to be in a transition stage, and to be passing gradually into even more specialised directions. The Minister thus addresses the members of his administration† :—

Functions of higher primary schools under present law.

"There is a third point of general interest which deserves your notice; it is the position assigned under the new regulations to *l'enseignement professionnel*. A clause in the recent financial Act transferred to the Minister of Commerce and Industry a certain number of *écoles primaires supérieures*, viz., those in which the teaching was definitely and principally of a technical kind. This measure has, to some extent, given us fuller liberty to organise the other schools (*i.e.*, those which remain exclusively under the Ministry of Public Instruction) in such a manner as will best fulfil the objects of their existence. There is no longer any necessity for us to force upon the programmes of these schools the widely differing subjects which we had to take into account when the same arrangements had to suit, at one and the same time, both the *écoles d'apprentissage* and the *écoles primaires supérieures* strictly so called.

"The *écoles d'apprentissage*, which were recently taken from under the supervision of this Ministry, have become *écoles pratiques de commerce et d'industrie*, and they will shortly have a definite organisation in the new regulations for the public service. We are thus no longer under the necessity of providing for the needs of any but the *écoles primaires supérieures* properly so called. These, too, must be *écoles pratiques* and even *écoles professionnelles*, but in a different sense of the term from that understood in the technical schools which 'give instruction in the

* It is only thus recently that special instruction for agriculture has won its way into recognition in its primary branches on a par with other manual occupations.

† Circular of Feb. 15, 1893, Ministry of Public Instruction.

'*practice* of industry and commerce.' It is necessary to consider the class of students received by our *écoles primaires supérieures.* They are not young men who are destined for the liberal professions with an indefinite time at their disposal for study, and who are seeking to obtain from us a high intellectual culture. They are the children of the working classes, who will in a very short time have to support themselves by work and most frequently by manual work. They do not aspire to a classical education. Their ambition, their probable destiny, is to fill one of those numerous mediocre positions which agriculture or commerce or industry offer to the worker, with a prospect of reaching by degrees a position somewhat more comfortable but which will never be high. If this is so, the *école primaire supérieure* cannot but direct the minds of its pupils from the first day to the last towards the necessities of the practical life which awaits them. It must not for an instant turn their thoughts from the pursuit of their profession—it must carefully avoid giving them tastes or habits or ideas which would estrange them from the kind of life and work which they have in view. And, whilst reminding them that democracy has removed the barriers which formerly closely confined the individual, it must endeavour to make them love and honour their professions, rather than set them dreaming about the means for leaving them. It is in this that higher primary instruction differs so distinctly from secondary education whether classical or modern. . . . . Higher primary instruction is immediately recognisable from its undisguisedly practical and utilitarian character. In that general sense it is *professionnel.* But it remains nevertheless in a true sense 'education'; it must not be confounded with apprenticeship. It is a school, it is not a workshop—pupils are found there, not apprentices. The education commenced at the *école primaire* will be continued there. Even for the workman (ought we not to say *especially* for the workman?) this cultivation of the mind, which moulds the judgment, the heart, the will, the character, and in fine all those senses which he will need as much as others in the battle for existence, cannot be termed a luxury out of place. And so our *écoles primaires supérieures* have in view that double object which has been assigned to them since their original creation. They combine, in the most intimate way, a completion of general education with a commencement of a professional one."

These carefully weighed sentences, when taken in conjunction with the programme of studies (on which detailed notes have been given above), may serve to exhibit, so far as ministerial intentions are concerned, the general conditions under which higher primary schools in France now exist, and the functions they are now intended to fulfil.

Appendix II.

After Careers of Higher Primary Students.

Careers of Pupils who left the Écoles Primaires Supérieures in 1895, without counting pupils from the Cours Complémentaires.

	Boys.	Girls.
Per-centages of the Whole Number.		
1. Entered as students in other educational establishments (secondary).	4·40	2·78
2*a*. Entered as student teachers in normal colleges (primary).	6·17	13·07
2*b*. Entered as teachers or monitors in educational establishments, primary and secondary.	·33	3·11
3. Entered as students in special schools preparing for different professions, *e.g.* :—		
Arts et métiers	7·00	1·79
Agriculture ou commerce		
Beaux-arts ou musique		
Horlogerie		
Mécaniciens de la flotte ou mousses		
Professionnelles		
Diverses		
4*a*. Entered as clerks in Government offices, central and local, *e.g.* :—		
Postes et télégraphes	3·67	1·95
Ponts et chaussées		
Contributions, enregistrement, douanes		
Ministères		
Préfectures		
Diverses		
4*b*. Entered as employés in offices or shops, *e.g.* :—		
Commerçants	21·33	4·47
Industriels		
Architects et constructeurs		
Officiers ministériels		
4*c*. Entered as clerks in banks or financial concerns	·20	·66
5. Entered as workmen or apprentices in industrial workshops.	16·33	2·76
6. Returned to their families to follow an industrial career.	7·09	1·88
7. Returned to their families to follow a commercial career.	5·71	5·79
8. Returned to their families to follow an agricultural career.	8·90	1·78
9. Returned to their families to follow domestic duties.	—	20·59
Summary of Principal Careers.		
Teaching	6·50	16·18
Clerical occupations or in shops	30·90	12·87
Manual occupations	32·32	6·42
Domestic life	0·0	20·59

Appendix III.

Time-Tables of Higher Primary Schools.

Boys.

Matières de l'enseignement.	Nombre total d'heures par semaine.								
	Enseignement général.			Section industrielle.		Section commerciale.		Section agricole.	
	1re année.	2e année.	3e année.	2e année.	3e année.	2e année.	3e année.	2e année.	3e année.
Morale	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Langue française	5	5	4	2	2	2	2	2	2
Écriture	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Histoire et instruction civique	1	1	2	1	1	1	1	1	1
Géographie	1	1	1	1	1	2	2	1	1
Langues vivantes	3	3	2	–	–	4	4	–	–
Mathématiques	4	3	3	3	3	2	2	2	2
Comptabilité et tenue des livres	–	1	1	2	2	3	3	1	1
Physique et chimie	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
Histoire naturelle et hygiène	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	2
Agriculture et horticulture	1	1	1	–	–	–	–	3	3
Droit usuel, économie politique	–	–	1	–	1	–	1	–	1
Dessin et modelage	3	3	3	4½	4½	1½	1½	1½	1½
Travaux manuels et agricoles	4	4	4	6	6	2	2	6	6
Gymnastique	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
Chant	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Heures à répartir suivant les besoins du service.	–	–	–	2½	1½	4½	3½	3½	2½
Totaux	30	30	30	30	30	30	30	30	30

Appendix III.—*cont.*

Girls.

Matières de l'enseignement.	Nombre total d'heures par semaine.						
	Enseignement général.			Section commerciale.		Section industrielle.	
	1re classe.	2e classe.	3e classe.	2e classe.	3e classe.	2e classe.	3e classe.
Morale	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Langue française	5	5	4	2	2	2	2
Ecriture	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Histoire et instruction civique	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Géographie	1	1	1	2	2	1	1
Langues vivantes	3	3	3	4	4	3	3
Mathématiques	3	2	2	2	2	2	2
Comptabilité et tenue des livres	–	1	1	3	3	1	1
Physique et chimie	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Histoire naturelle et hygiene	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Horticulture	1	1	1	1	–	–	–
Droit usuel et économie politique	–	–	1	–	1	–	1
Dessin et modelage	3	3	3	1½	1½	4½	4½
Travaux manuels	5	5	4	3	3	6	6
Gymnastique	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
Chant	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Totaux	29	29	28	26½	26½	27½	28½

By way of comparison with the foregoing, the time-tables of the establishments for *enseignement secondaire moderne* are here given, beginning with the lowest classes :—

ENSEIGNEMENT SECONDAIRE MODERNE.

Répartition Hebdomadaire des Diverses Matières.

(Arrêtés des 15 juin 1891 et 29 juillet 1893.)

DIVISION DE GRAMMAIRE.

Classe de Sixième.

Français	6 h.	par semaine.
Langue allemande*	6 h.	—
Histoire	1 h. 1/2	—
Géographie	1 h. 1/2	—
Arithmétique	2 h. 1/2	—
Histoire naturelle	1 h. 1/2	—
Calligraphie	1 h.	—
Dessin	3 h.	—
	23 h.	par semaine.

* Dans l'*Académie d'Alger*, la langue arabe peut être enseignée dans toute la série des classes.

Appendix III.—*cont.*

Enseignement Secondaire Moderne—*cont.*

Classe de Cinquième.

Français	6 h.	par semaine.
Langue allemande	4 h.	—
Langue anglaise*	4 h.	—
Histoire	1 h. 1/2	—
Géographie	1 h. 1/2	—
Arithmétique	2 h. 1/2	—
Histoire naturelle	1 h. 1/2	—
Calligraphie	1 h.	—
Dessin	3 h.	—
	25 h.	par semaine.

Classe de Quatrième.

Français	4 h. 1/2	par semaine.
Langue allemande ou langue anglaise	4 h.	—
Langues allemande ou anglaise, italienne, espagnole ou russe	6 h.†	—
Histoire	1 h. 1/2	—
Morale pratique	1 h.	—
Géographie	1 h.	par semaine.
Mathématiques	3 h.	—
Calligraphie	1 h.	—
Dessin	3 h.	—
	25 h.	par semaine.

Division Supérieure.

Classe de Troisième.

Français	4 h. 1/2	par semaine.
Langues et littératures allemandes ou anglaises	3 h.	—
Langues et littératures allemandes ou anglaises, italiennes, espagnoles ou russes	3 h.	—
Histoire	1 h. 1/2	—
Géographie	1 h.	—
Mathématiques	4 h. 1/2	—
Physique et chime	3 h.	—
Dessin	3 h.	—
	23 h. 1/2	par semaine.

* Par décision spéciale, la langue anglaise pourra prendre [dans l'emploi du temps de l'enseignement secondaire moderne] la place de la langue allemande, et réciproquement.
"Ce régime pourra être adopté notamment, pour un groupe d'élèves, dans les établissements où les classes d'enseignement moderne comprennent plusieurs divisions."—*Arrêté du 29 juillet* 1893, *art.* 2.

† La répartition des heures attribuées aux autres langues vivantes sera faite par décision spéciale, suivant les besoins des établissements.

Appendix III.—*cont.*

Enseignement Secondaire Moderne—*cont.*

Classe de Seconde.

Français	4 h. 1/2	par semaine.
Langues et littératures allemandes ou anglaises	3 h.	—
Langues et littératures allemandes ou anglaises, italiennes, espagnoles ou russes	3 h.	—
Histoire	1 h. 1/2	—
Géographie	1 h.	—
Mathématiques	4 h. 1/2	—
Physique et chimie	4 h. 1/2	—
Dessin	3 h.	—
	25 h.	par semaine.

Classe de Première (Lettres).

Français	4 h. 1/2	par semaine.
Philosophie	6 h.	—
Principes du droit et économie politique	2 h.	—
Histoire	1 h. 1/2	—
Histoire de la civilisation et histoire de l'art	3 h.	—
Géographie générale	1 h. 1/2	par semaine.
Sciences naturelles	1 h. 1/2	—
Langues et littératures allemandes ou anglaises (*facultatives*)	1 h.	—
Langues et littératures allemandes ou anglaises, italiennes, espagnoles ou russes (*facultatives*)	1 h.	—
Comptabilité (*facultative*)	1 h.	—
Dessin (*facultatif*)	1 h. 1/2	—
	24 h. 1/2	par semaine.

Classe de Première (Sciences).

Mathématiques	6 h.	par semaine.
Physique et chimie	4 h. 1/2	—
Histoire naturelle	1 h. 1/2	—
Philosophie	3 h.	—
Principes du droit et économie politique	2 h.	—
Histoire	1 h. 1/2	—
Géographie générale	1 h. 1/2	—
Dessin	3 h.	—
Comptabilité	1 h.	—
Langues et littératures allemandes ou anglaises (*facultatives*)	1 h.	—
Langues et littératures allemandes ou anglaises, italiennes, espagnoles ou russes (*facultatives*)	1 h.	—
	26 h.	par semaine.

Appendix IV.—The Position of Denominational Schools in France.

It may not be generally recognised in England that Catholic schools are still zealously maintaining their struggle for existence in France. This fact has always been most marked in the case of girls' schools for the well-to-do classes; but a great effort against extinction is still being made with considerable success by the elementary schools also. Thus in the year 1895 there were 5½ million children altogether in infants' schools, primary schools, and higher primary schools and classes throughout France. Of this 5½ million, 24 per cent. were in private schools. And this figure is an increasing one; for out of the total number of children in all elementary schools in 1889–92, 16·1 per cent. of the boys and 29·9 per cent. of the girls were in private schools, or 22·9 per cent. in all. And the same figures for 1892–93 were 16·4 boys and 34·1 girls, or 23·3 in all. In infants' schools the proportion is still greater—35·5 per cent. in 1891, and 36·7 per cent. in 1892 being in private schools.

And of these private schools, by far the greater number are *congréganistes, i.e.*, kept by religious orders; and the proportion of these also is gradually increasing. Thus in every 100 children who are in private schools the following were in *congréganistes* schools:—

—	Boys.	Girls.	Total.
	Per Cent.	Per Cent.	Per Cent.
1891 - - -	88·2	88·6	88·4
1892 - - -	88·3	89·2	88·9

It is interesting to note that the increase of *private* primary schools has been continuous, as is shown by the following statistics of the children in primary and higher primary schools:—

—	Public Schools.	Diminution per Cent.	Private Schools.	Increase per Cent.
1887 - - -	4,505,109	—	1,091,810	—
1888 - - -	4,492,844	− 0·3	1,123,616	+ 2·9
1889 - - -	4,446,851	− 1·0	1,176,550	+ 4·7
1890 - - -	4,405,543	− 0·9	1,196,021	+ 1·7
1891 - - -	4,384,905	− 0·5	1,208,978	+ 1·1
1892 - - -	4,281,182	− 2·4	1,275,287	+ 5·5

And this in spite of the fact that the total child population of France (aged 6–13 years) had diminished during the same period by 1·4 per cent.*

* Compare the fact that the child population of London *increases* by nearly 10,000, or 1·3 per cent., annually, and of England and Wales by about 53,000, or ·5 per cent. per annum.

But it must be noted, however, that this increase is not really a nett increase of pupils in *congréganistes* schools during those years. This is shown by the fact that in this same period, if we take all the public and private schools together, the total number of children in *congréganistes* schools has decreased 3·7 per cent., whereas the total number of children in lay schools has increased 0·6 per cent. So that the *congréganistes* schools are not gaining ground upon the lay schools, if we take the country as a whole; it is rather that a transfer of *congréganistes* schools is taking place from the category of public to that of private establishments, through the gradual carrying out of the law of Laicisation, which was to bring about the exclusion of all but lay persons from teaching in *public* elementary schools.* It is in fact the scholars in *private* elementary schools who have increased 14 per cent., while those in *public* elementary schools have decreased 4 per cent., in the same period. But since the great majority of private schools are in *congréganistes* hands, it is plain from these statistics that the religious orders are making a great struggle, not without a considerable measure of success, to maintain their hold on French education. And in some towns, even in strong industrial centres where one might expect a greater proportion of secular feeling, one may find that between 40 and 50 per cent. of the children are in elementary schools kept by religious orders. And this in spite of the fact that the latter have to compete, by means of voluntary subscriptions alone, without a farthing of State aid or public funds, with the now universally established *free* public secular schools, with excellent buildings, admirable equipment, and well-trained, State-paid, high salaried staff of directors and teachers. But the stress, and the bitterness of the struggle, it would be a difficult task to measure or to describe.

R. L. MORANT.

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* The law for the exclusion of religious orders from public primary schools was not put into immediate effect, in the case of girls' schools; it was to be applied only as vacancies took place. Hence there are still a few public schools in *congréganistes* hands, here and there. A renewed effort to have the law put into complete and immediate effect was rejected at a recent debate in the Chamber, though the Minister only ventured to oppose the proposition on the grounds of the expense that would be entailed. It was stated that, in the ordinary course, the law will have obtained complete effect within about 25 years from now.

The Realschulen in Berlin and their bearing on Questions of Secondary and Commercial Education.

I.

The present time is one of transition and experiment in the organisation and curriculum of the secondary schools of Prussia. There, as in our own country, new types of school are rising in response to the public demand, while in many schools of older foundation modern studies are taking a more prominent place than was formerly accorded to them. This movement for an increased variety in secondary education, and for the ampler recognition of modern languages as instruments of higher teaching, is indeed by no means confined to Germany and England. It is making rapid strides in all countries where the classical tradition formerly held almost unchallenged sway. But the force and significance of the new tendency can perhaps be more easily traced in Prussia than elsewhere. There, as in this country, the older ideal of classical training has been embodied in a noble system of public schools, directed by teachers of high attainment, animated by splendid traditions of public service, and secure in the pride and affection of all who have come under their influence or have recognised the far-reaching benefits which they have conferred upon the State. It is therefore in no spirit of vandalism or ingratitude that eminent leaders of German thought have formed the conviction that the older type of secondary school must in the public interest be supplemented by another, not less exacting in its standards of intellectual discipline, but more closely related in its curriculum to the needs and studies of the present day. So far, indeed, as the new movement has won its way in Germany, it has done so by gaining adherents not merely among those who are ignorant of what the older tradition can accomplish at its best, but from the ranks of men who have themselves been trained on classical lines, and who are bound by every tie of loyalty and instinctive preference to do nothing to weaken influences which they have found in their own experience to be good. In Germany, therefore, as would be the case in England, the new ideas have had not only to overcome the blind resistance of traditional routine, but to approve themselves to minds naturally and justly biassed in favour of the tested excellence of older methods. And thus the new movement has been subjected to the most searching and intelligent criticism which any educational proposals could undergo.

Up to a certain point, the conditions under which schemes for the amendment of the curriculum in secondary schools are compelled to win general acceptance, are not unlike in England and Germany. But the parallel soon ends. In

English education similar changes are also taking place; but with us the movement is sporadic, and public interest has been less concentrated on the real issues at stake. Here the changes are being introduced into individual schools, scattered all over the country, and not, as in Germany, ranged under public authority as one branch of the educational provision of the State. With us the movement is rather unconscious and instinctive, than formulated in theory and precise in its aim. There are few statistics to mark its progress; no systematic principles determine its advance; no general record is published of the success or failure of the experiments which are being made. In Prussia, on the other hand, the more elaborate organisation of the secondary school system has forced the advocates of reform to state more clearly the grounds of their objections to the existing arrangement, and the details of the scheme which they propose for its amendment. In Prussia a new movement for educational reform can make no real advance until it has convinced the authorities of the expediency of change, and the process of doing this clears up the questions of principle underlying the new proposals, compels their supporters to realise the bearings of what they desire to accomplish, and brings into close association all those who demand reform. Thus, what with us naturally becomes a kind of guerilla warfare, in Prussia takes the form of a pitched battle or carefully planned compaign. But, if the reformers prove their case and secure concessions to their demands, the consequent changes are at once more universal and more widely known. The results of the experiments are more carefully registered, and the effects of the change are therefore more easily traced.

Each of these two methods of educational development has, of course, its characteristic excellence. The English system permits more individual initiative, allows readier adaptation to what are believed to be local needs, and encourages, on the whole, greater variety of experiment. The Prussian method, on the other hand, suffers less to be done on the personal responsibility of a single board of governors, but ultimately leads to a more systematic statement and consideration of the case for reform. And, when the issues have been threshed out, it facilitates a more general acceptance of new arrangements. These differences in the way of handling the reform of secondary education are, of course, closely bound up with the different systems of administration which prevail in the two countries. Each approves itself to a different type of national character. Each is intimately connected with the habits of thought and action which methods of government have themselves helped to form. It would therefore be as absurd to expect the English system to be transplanted into Germany as the German into England.

But, nevertheless, though their methods are so different, the two countries are really seeking a solution for the same class of difficulties in national education. The statement of the terms may differ, but the problems are at bottom the same. Each

country is trying to equip the rising generation of its citizens to bear a worthy part in national life, the conditions of which are increasingly similar for all countries in Western Europe. Each aims at fitting its young people for a struggle which in every country steadily becomes more intense, and in its wider significance is pitting the brain and character of each nation against the brain and character of its rivals. Each is compelled to pay increasingly close regard to the demands of commercial and industrial society. It is instructive, therefore, to note what is being done in Germany to enlarge the range of secondary education, and to establish schools specially directed to meet the new needs of modern life. The very fact that the means adopted in the two countries are so different increases the possibility of fruitful comparison, though one of the first results of such an inquiry is to suggest the conclusion that German methods of organisation are not so rigid or English arrangements so untrammelled as at first sight they may appear to be.

The movement in favour of a modification of the older type of secondary school is, so far as Germany is concerned, of no recent date. But there, as has been to some extent the case in England, the movement has taken within the last few years a new and more promising form. A generation back, the unbending and often arrogant claims of classical education gave rise to an opposition no less narrow and one-sided. The programme proposed for a new form of secondary school was crudely utilitarian and practical. Its advocates were for discarding elements which are necessary to all true education of the higher type, because they saw that in the hands of the more pedantic of their rivals those elements failed to secure the benefits which were claimed as their necessary consequence. On the other hand, the upholders of the older system resented suggestions, excellent in themselves, for the widening of the course of study by the inclusion of natural science and modern languages, because they came from critics who had committed themselves to an indiscriminate condemnation of the traditional methods of school training.

The pioneers of the movement, however, Spilleke* and Karl Mager,† had not argued their case in any narrowly utilitarian spirit. Their meaning slowly disengaged itself from the cruder advocacy which their schemes had elicited from less enlightened quarters. The cause of modern studies gradually began to prevail, and in 1859 a breach was made in the primacy of the classical schools.‡ The official administrator who used his great influence in favour of the recognition of the Latin-less school was Dr. Wiese.§ In

* *Von dem Wesen der höheren Bürgerschule.* 1822.

† *Deutsche Bürgerschule; Schreiben an einen Staatsmann.* 1840.

‡ *Cp.* Dr. Paul Thomaschky's *Zur geschichtlichen Entwickelung des Realschulwesens*, Wissenschaftliche Beilage zum Jahresbericht des Fünften Realschule zu Berlin. 1894.

§ *Cp.* Wiese's *Lebenserinnerungen und Amtserfahrungen*, Berlin. Wiegandt und Grieben, vol. i., pp. 209, *seq.*, and 338–341, and vol. ii., pp. 55, *seq.*

1882, the new regulations for higher schools swept away Latin verse making and reduced the hours given to Greek in the Gymnasien, while they gave to those Realschulen, which taught Latin, and had a nine years' course, the name of Realgymnasien. Since that time, however, a significant change seems to have crept over educational opinion. Threatened by the competition of their rivals, and relieved of many of their least promising pupils, the classical teachers set to work to amend their methods. Classical archæology and travel have breathed new life into the studies of the classical schools, while, on the other hand, there has been some disappointment at the educational results of some of the earlier schemes of reform. The discussions during the Conference, which was held at Berlin on questions of higher education in December 1890, showed that expert opinion had become somewhat adverse to the compromise embodied in the Realgymnasium, a hybrid between the classical and the modern school. It looks rather as if the future would be with the fully classical school on the one hand and the purely modern school on the other; each apparently meets a real need in national culture, but each, in order to reach its most characteristic excellence, requires a curriculum consistent at all points with itself and not an amalgam of discordant ideas.

The year 1882 was a date of determinative importance in the history of Prussian secondary education. The new regulations of March 31 in that year officially recognised, as holding a place in the hierarchy of higher instruction, three grades of Latin-less schools. The first was the Oberrealschule with a nine years' course; the second, the Realschule with a seven years' course; the third, the Higher Bürgerschule with a six years' course.* For the last-named type of school the regulations declared that there was indisputable need in Prussia, in order to meet the requirements of the lower middle classes and of the more highly skilled artisans. In 1892 the revised regulations for higher schools showed marked favour towards the höhere Bürgerschule —called thenceforward the Realschule—with its Latin-less curriculum and six years' course. And the official encouragement shown to these schools has been emphatically endorsed by public opinion. This type of school has been called by an experienced observer, "the darling of the Prussian Education Department" (das Lieblingskind der preussischen Unterrichtsverwaltung). The schools are felt to meet a real need, and in the year 1895–6 there were no fewer than 54 of them in Prussia alone.

The present regulations recognise two forms of curriculum for these schools. The first is the same as that of the Oberrealschule from Class VI. to Class II. B. inclusive. This curriculum is printed in the following paper on the Oberrealschulen.

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* *Cp.* Wiese's *Verordnungen und Gesetze für die höheren Schulen in Preussen*, (edited by Kübler), 1886, 1st vol., p. 5.

The classification of the various types of higher schools in Prussia will be found in the following memorandum on the Oberrealschulen.

The second and alternative plan of studies for the Realschule is as follows* :—

(*Class I. is the top of the School.*)

Subject.	Number of Hours in each Class per week, exclusive of Home Lessons.						
	VI.	V.	IV.	III.	II.	I.	Total.
Religion	3	2	2	2	2	2	13
Mother-tongue and narration of national historical events	5+1=6	4+1=5	5	5	4	3	28
French	6	6	6	5	4	4	31
English	—	—	—	5	4	4	13
History + Geography	2	2	2+2	2+2	2+1	2+2	19
Arithmetic and geometry	4	4	5	5	5	5	28
Natural history	2	2	2	2	2	—	10
Natural science (more advanced).	—	—	—	—	3	5	8
Writing	2	2	2	—	—	—	6
Freehand drawing	—	2	2	2	2	2	10
Total	25	25	28	30	29	29	166

II.

In the city of Berlin, however, there are 12 municipal Realschulen which hold an important place in the educational system of the capital, but do not follow in their curriculum the lines, laid down by the regulations of the Government. They enjoy nevertheless, official recognition, and the very fact that this variation of type has been permitted by the Prussian Government is itself a proof that the control of secondary education in that country is far from being as rigid and inelastic as is sometimes represented to be the case. The organisation of the Berlin Realschulen, moreover, raises so many interesting questions in educational policy, and their curriculum is based on so definite an aim, that I may be permitted to draw special attention to these schools and to examine the cause of their undoubted success.

The new regulations of 1882 marked, as explained above, a rise in the official and public estimate of Latin-less secondary schools, and gave rise to many efforts for their extension and encouragement. In August 1883 the Municipal Schul-Deputation (school committee) of Berlin presented to the Magistrat of the city a memorial praying them to sanction the expenditure necessary to the erection of a municipal secondary school in the following spring. This memorial was an educational document of great importance. It was signed, on behalf of the Schul-Deputation, by Dr. Bertram, one of the Stadtschulräthe, and eminent alike for his distinguished services to municipal administration and for his wide educational experience. The memorial recommended that State recognition should be sought for a höhere

* *Lehrpläne und Lehraufgaben für die höheren Schulen.* Berlin. Wilhelm Hertz.

Bürgerschule (now called Realschule) on somewhat different lines to those laid down in the new *Lehrpläne und Lehraufgaben für die höheren Schulen*, 1882. The crucial point of the proposed divergence was in respect of the time fixed for beginning the study of modern languages. The normal plans of the official programmes require the study of French to begin in the lowest class of the Realschule, viz., in Sexta, and that of English to begin in the fourth class from the bottom, viz., in Tertia. The memorial, however, of the Berlin Schul-Deputation proposed that in the two lowest classes no modern languages should be studied, French to begin in the third class from the bottom, viz., in Quarta, and English in the fourth class from the bottom, viz., in Secunda.

The school plan thus suggested in the memorial was mapped out as follows :—

(*Class I. is the top of the School.*)

Hours of Weekly Work in School.

Subject.	Class VI.	Class V.	Class IV.	Class III.	Class II.	Class I.
Religion	2	2	2	2	2	2
Mother-tongue	6	6	3	3	3	3
Writing	2	2	—	—	—	—
Arithmetic and algebra	4	4	3	3	2	2
Geometry	3	3	3	3	3	3
History and geography	4	4	4	4	3	3
Natural science	4	4	3	3	3	3
French	—	—	8	8	5	5
English	—	—	—	—	5	5
Drawing	2	2	2	2	2	2
Singing	2	2	2	2	2	2
Gymnastics	2	2	2	2	2	2
Total	31	31	32	32	32	32

The grounds on which these changes were recommended were partly administrative and partly pedagogical. In the first place, it was argued that three-quarters of the boys in Berlin obtained their first education in the public elementary schools. The most capable and industrious of these lads reached the standard of knowledge appointed for the highest class of the elementary schools by the end of their 12th year or shortly after. But the passage of these boys from the elementary to a secondary school was made difficult by the fact that in the latter grade of schools the pupils began the study of modern languages in their 10th year. It was, however, undesirable to draft these boys from the elementary schools at an earlier age than 12, because they were the "indispensable yeast" of the upper part of the primary school (das unentbehrliche Ferment) and the efficiency of the latter would be impaired by their premature withdrawal. Moreover, the poorer class of parents would not feel justified in incurring the expense of a secondary education for lads whose powers had not been tested by a longer course in the elementary

school. The need for secondary schools designed to receive these clever lads for the primary schools at 13 was an urgent social necessity. On these grounds it was urged that the curriculum of the new municipal secondary school, which the memorialists desired the Magistrat to establish, should be so designed as to fit in with the curriculum of the elementary school, and that it should require, from boys entering the new school from the elementary school in the natural way and *at the natural place in the order of the classes*, no previous knowledge of subjects not taught in the elementary school. The new school was to be, not a mere refuge for the less promising pupils of the Gymnasien and Realgymnasien, but a secondary school for the cleverest boys from the working classes, and as such ought to aim at a high standard, but on special conditions of its own.

This was the administrative argument, based on the necessity for an organic and intimate connexion between the elementary and secondary schools of the city. The fact that the municipality of Berlin has relation, though by no means the same relation, to both grades of school in the city gave it at once experience of the practical problem to be solved, and an earnest desire to solve it in the manner best suited to the interests of the promising boys of poorer parentage. It would, however, naturally have followed from the administrative argument of the Schul-Deputation that the two lower classes of the proposed secondary school should be cut off, and that the new schools should begin at Quarta. It is an open secret that Dr. Bertram himself would have preferred this arrangement, but he was overruled by his colleagues, and the proposed curriculum embraced six classes, though the clever boys from the elementary schools (for whom the schools were chiefly designed) would not pass through either of the two lowest ones.

Behind the administrative argument lay the pedagogical one, which is admirably stated in the memorial.* The view taken by the Schul-Deputation was that the study of foreign languages begins as a rule too soon. While the child is still scantily equipped with knowledge of his own mother tongue and of the science of common life, he is prematurely forced into the study of a strange idiom which distracts him from subjects more naturally suited and congenial to his period of mental development, and compels him to burden his memory with an unnatural load of new words and constructions learnt by rote, but not really understood. The memorialists contended that this habit of prematurely forcing the child into the study of a foreign tongue was a mere survival of former times in which the German language was still poor in literature, when geographical and physical ideas were still obscure or undiscovered, and when, therefore, the range of available school studies was much more restricted than it has since become. They urged accordingly that a new school should be established

* The documents are printed in a little pamphlet entitled "*Aktenstücke betreffend die Errichtung höherer Bürgenschulen.*" (Berlin W. Baensch, Ritterstrasse 77/78.)

by the municipality of Berlin (if Governmental sanction could be obtained for the step) in which no foreign tongue should be studied in any class below that normally reached by a lad entering on his 13th year. In the lower classes there should be given as thorough a preparation as possible in the mother-tongue (a subject to which far more attention is paid both in French and German, than in English, secondary schools) in arithmetic and geometry, in religious knowledge, in geography and history, and in the elements of natural science. Well grounded in these subjects, whether in the elementary school or in the two lower classes of the proposed secondary school, a lad would be able on entering the class named Quarta to attack French with zest and intelligence, and by devoting a large number of hours to its acquisition (twice as much as to any other single subject and a quarter of the whole school week) would rapidly overtake boys who had begun the subject prematurely a couple of years before. Finally, two years later still, the lad would proceed to begin the study of English, and would find himself qualified, by his knowledge of one foreign tongue, rapidly to address himself with good hope of success to the study of a second.

The memorialists proceeded to suggest that the school fees in the new school should be 4*l.* a year, and that half the teaching staff should be University graduates.

The spirit and point of this celebrated memorial are very striking to the reader. He feels that he is perusing an educational manifesto, a document which, under the form of an official memorandum, is really the statement of a pedagogical creed. It is difficult not to trace in every paragraph of the memorial, so luminously written and so pregnant with suggestions, the hand of Dr. Bertram himself.

The memorial was considered in due course by the Magistrat, and the latter authority decided in September 1883 that the proposed scheme was a good one, that the plan of deferring the study of a foreign language till Quarta was specially desirable, and that steps should be taken to secure State approval of the plan.

It was now the turn of the Education Department, and, in February of the following year (1884), the Minister of Education transmitted to the Provinzial-Schul-Kollegium (with instructions to the latter to acquaint the Magistrat of Berlin with the official decision) an important memorandum on the Berlin proposals. To an English reader this memorandum is specially interesting, because it shows exactly with what searching care the Prussian Government examines the educational bearings of new schemes for school organisation, and also within what limits it is prepared, even if somewhat against its own judgment and predilections, to allow freedom of experiment to municipalities which have proved their educational zeal. The Minister begins by saying that he has grave doubts as to the scheme, and especially as to the wisdom of diverging from the normal plan laid down in the regulations of 1882. But the Magistrat of Berlin has shown on such frequent occasions its care for the interests of public

education, that he has given the new proposals, as coming from such a quarter, his most careful consideration. He admits the need of providing for the clever boys who at 12 years of age have practically reached the top of the elementary school, and whose next two years of school life could be more profitably spent elsewhere. And he evidently admires the ingenuity of the plan by which the Berlin municipality sought to meet the needs alike of this class of boys, and also of those whose parents would send them to the Realschule at 10. But he expresses a grave doubt whether the two aims can be successfully combined. However, he is prepared on three conditions to allow the experiment to be tried: first, the new schools are not to be allowed to influence the curriculum of the elementary schools proper; second, certain minor changes are to be made in the division of hours among the various subjects; and, third, the concession is to be regarded as strictly an experiment, made in view of the special circumstances of the case and subject to later revision.

This memorandum was addressed by the Minister to the Provinzial-Schul-Kollegium, and three weeks afterwards was duly forwarded by that body to the municipality of Berlin. The scheme for the new Realschulen was thus formally sanctioned, and the movement began which has resulted in the establishment of no less than 12 of these schools, containing upwards of 5,000 scholars. As modified by the decision of the Ministry of Education, the scheme of studies in the Berlin Realschulen is as follows:—

(*Class I. is the top of the School.*)

Subject.	Number of Hours given Weekly in Class, exclusive of Home Lessons.					
	VI.	V.	IV.	III.	II.	I.
Religion	3	2	2	2	2	2
Mother-tongue and narration of national his orical events.	6	6	4	4	3	3
French	—	—	8	8	6	6
English	—	—	—	—	6	6
History and geography	3	4	4	4	3	3
Mathematics	6	6	6	6	5	5
Natural history	2	2	2	2	2	—
Physics and chemistry	—	—	—	2	2	4
Writing	3	3	—	—	—	—
Freehand drawing	2	2	2	2	1	1
Total	25	25	28	30	30	30
Geometrical drawing	—	—	—	—	2	2
Singing*	2	2	2	2	2	2
Gymnastics	3	3	3	3	3	3
Total	30	30	33	35	37	37

* Owing to the natural break in their voices most of the boys in the upper forms are excused from the singing lessons.

III.

At this point it is necessary to say something about the municipal organisation of Berlin as it affects education. Those who have read Dr. Albert Shaw's work on municipal administration on the continent of Europe will be prepared to hear of the high excellence of the local government of Berlin. In 1894 Mr. James Pollard, chairman of the Edinburgh Public Health Committee, and secretary of the Edinburgh Chamber of Commerce, published an interesting book, called "A Study in Municipal Government,"* in which he records his impressions of the city administration of Berlin, and speaks in high terms of praise of its efficiency and thoroughness. His book gives a useful outline of the work of the corporation, while a detailed list of the various committees will be found in the *Personal-Nachweisung der Berliner Gemeinde-Verwaltung* (Berlin: Loewenthal, Grünstrasse 11).

The power to pass laws for the government of the city is vested in the "Magistrat" alone. It consists of 34 members. They are chosen, subject to the approval of the Civil Governor (Ober-Präsident of the Province of Brandenburg), by the Stadt-Verordneten-Versammlung, the members of which are elected by the wards of the city by manhood suffrage. But the Stadt-Verordneten-Versammlung has no legislative powers of its own. It may, however, make representations to the Magistrat. Seventeen of the members of the Magistrat (including the Ober-Bürgermeister and the Bürgermeister) are paid experts. The whole corporation is presided over by an Ober-Bürgermeister (Herr Zelle) and a Bürgermeister (Herr Kirschner), both of whom are paid a salary.

For the various departments of municipal activity there are special committees formed in a composite manner. The education committee is called the Städtische Schul-Deputation. It consists of 32 members. The Bürgermeister is chairman. Five Stadträthe are members, including Drs. Bertram and Fürstenau, Stadt-Schul-Räthe. There are five representatives of religious bodies, 10 Stadt-Verordnete, and 11 citizens chosen by the Stadt-Verordneten-Versammlung, and styled Bürger-Deputirte. This Städtische Schul-Deputation manages the elementary schools of the city, the municipal higher girls' schools (which in Prussia do not technically rank among the higher schools), the blind institution, the school for the deaf and dumb, and, *but only in a very limited sense,* the Realschulen. The Schul-Deputation has nothing to do with the other municipal higher schools for boys (städtische höhere Lehranstalten—Gymnasien, Real-gymnasien, and Oberrealschulen), and, as the Realschulen rank among the higher schools, they are also withdrawn from its immediate supervision, though they appear to fall more within its purview than do the other municipal secondary schools of the

* Published by W. Blackwood and Sons. (Reference should especially be made to Chapters 1 and 7, of which I have made use in this section of my paper.)

city. The inspectors of the elementary schools are paid by the municipality, but have the character and independent position of royal officials. On its didactical and pedagogical side the inspection of the elementary schools is practically Royal, though the inspectors may at the same time have municipal responsibilities.

There is no educational inspection of the higher schools on the part of the municipality. Great stress is to be laid on this point. At the same time the municipality knows what is going on in the municipal higher schools, and in Berlin (though not in most other towns) provides all the funds necessary for their provision and maintenance. In the control of the higher schools the State has the whip hand. All really turns on the privileges (Berechtigungen) which the State is prepared to grant to a given school.* Among these privileges, one of the most important (for the Realschulen perhaps the most important) is the recognition of a school's leaving certificate as excusing a youth from one of the two years of military service (Zeugniss für den einjährig-freiwilligen-Militärdienst). This valued privilege is accorded to those Realschulen the organisation of which is complete. It is the natural ambition of every boy to obtain this certificate, and thus to qualify for "one year's voluntary military service." All good commercial firms require their clerks to have obtained this certificate, which thus practically possesses a money value, and is the key to the higher positions in business life. A youth who holds this certificate is excused from one of the two years' compulsory service in the army, and while serving enjoys a higher status in the ranks. He has to provide his own uniform, food, and lodging; the necessary outlay being at least 100*l*. After leaving school, a lad who has gained this certificate generally enters upon his apprenticeship, and fulfils his year of military service at a somewhat later date.

The real control of the work of the higher schools being thus in the hands of the State, a few words are necessary on the organisation of the Central Educational Authority.† The Ministerium der geistlichen, Unterrichts- und Medizinal-Angelegenheiten has three departments, viz., for religious affairs, for education, and for medicine. In the Education Department there are two sections of the Central Office under the Minister and the Under Secretary of State. Each section is presided

* The State holds the key to all the higher callings in Prussia. Admission to the various professions, or to the courses of study necessary to preparation for them, is dependent on the possession of prescribed school-leaving certificates. It rests with the State to decide what privileges shall attach to the leaving certificates of any given school. In its award of these privileges the State is guided by the efficiency of the school as tested by inspection and examination. Institutions which desire to qualify for any given privilege are required to conform to the typical curricula officially prescribed for each grade of school. A summary of the privileges attaching to the various types of higher schools in Prussia will be found in Appendix VIII. at the end of this paper.

† On this point cp. *Statistisches Jahrbuch der höheren Schulen Deutschlands* (Leipzig: Teubner); and Dr. Levi Seeley's *Common School System of Germany* (Kellogg: Chicago).

over by a director, and consists of a number of Vortragende Räte. Though the two sections of the Central Office deal with different departments of education, they form in no sense separate authorities, and six officers serve on both of the two divisions. As the personnel is thus intermixed, and the two divisions work in the same building, the labours of the Department are marked by the necessary unity of purpose.

But the Kultus-Ministerium is not itself in direct communication with the schools. It acts through the Provinzial-Schul-Kollegium in each of the 13 provinces of Prussia. The members of the Provinzial-Schul-Kollegium are appointed by the Crown, and are practically all ex-head-masters. They deal with all the educational work of the schools. The head master of a Realschule, for example, never receives orders direct from the Department; they reach him through the Schul-Kollegium, and it is to the Schul-Kollegium that he must go if he wishes to address any request to the Department. The members of the Schul-Kollegium conduct the examinations with the assistance of the teachers of the schools. They exercise a watchful survey over the inner working of the schools and over the courses of study. It is they who sanction the choice of text-books from the list of those approved by the Minister, and to them that the head masters submit, at stated intervals, detailed reports of the condition of their schools. The Schul-Kollegium is thus a most important link in the organisation of Prussian secondary education. It is closely in touch with the opinions of the teachers, as each Schulrath, on inspecting a school, generally summons all the teaching staff to meet him in conference. Its opinions have, no doubt, great weight in the counsels of the Central Authority.

But, though the municipality has no direct control over the educational work of the Realschulen, indirectly it has great influence. The city Schulrath, having the right to visit the schools for municipal purposes, is occasionally present at the teaching, and expresses his opinion on it. The head master is nominated by the Magistrat but actually appointed by the Crown, while the other teachers are appointed by the Magistrat, naturally on the recommendation of the city Schulrath, but subject to the approval of the Central Authority. It follows that the relations between the city Schulrath, as representing the municipality, and the head master are necessarily intimate, and that much depends on their understanding one another's point of view. The machine is a complicated one, full of checks and balances, but it is said to work smoothly and to the general satisfaction of all concerned.*

* Reference may be made on this subject to a valuable article by Sir Philip Magnus (who has done very much to interest the public in German schools) published in the *National Review* for April 1897 under the title "Trade and Training in Germany."

IV.

In March of the present year (1897) I had the good fortune to obtain permission to spend several days in some of the Berlin Realschulen, and thus to hear a considerable number of typical lessons. I take this opportunity of expressing my obligation to the Kultus Ministerium of Prussia for giving me leave to visit these schools, and my hearty thanks to Herr Stadtschulrath Professor Dr. Bertram, for his kindness in placing at my disposal a large number of documents necessary to my inquiry, and for giving me a great deal of valuable information. My thanks are also due to Dr. Carl Theodor Michaelis, Director of the Seventh Realschule; to Dr. Rosenow, Director of the Ninth Realschule; to Dr. Schulze, Director of the Französisches Gymnasium; to Dr. Schwalbe, Director of the Dorotheenstädtisches Realgymnasium; to Dr. Ulbrich, Director of the Friedrichs-Werdersche Oberrealschule; to Professor Pappenheim; to Lehrer Tews; and to the editor of the *Pädagogische Zeitung*, all of whom gave me much of their time, and enabled me to hear many things which would otherwise have escaped my notice. But, above all, I am indebted to my friend Professor Dr. Emil Hausknecht, Director of the 12th Realschule, for having made leisure, in the midst of his pressing occupations, not only to guide me to what was most worth seeing, but to answer the numerous inquiries with which I was obliged to trouble him.

The first thing which impresses itself on the visitor to the Berlin Realschulen is that they keep before them, at every point of their work, the ideal of a liberal education. They are not commercial schools, nor industrial schools. They aim at turning out well-educated boys, trained in habits of application, well equipped with knowledge, and qualified to address themselves, with good hope of success, to the duty of learning the trade or profession in which they intend to seek a livelihood. The curriculum, as has been seen, is purely a modern one. Latin and Greek are excluded. But natural science does not predominate in the scheme of work. The stress is laid on linguistic and literary (including religious and historical studies), while mathematics, natural science, and drawing receive considerable attention. The aim of the schools is to draw the subject-matter of instruction very largely from those spheres of knowledge which are nearest to the pupil's present experience and to his probable career; to train his reasoning powers and the habit of quick and accurate observation, and at the same time to cultivate the faculty of exact and appropriate expression.

Apart from its purely educational significance, it is clear that this form of curriculum has a very close bearing on commercial questions. The schools do not impart what would be called, in the narrow sense of the term, technical education. But they do fit their pupils to acquire very quickly on leaving school an accurate and intelligent knowledge of their business. These

schools naturally lead up to commercial life. When a boy leaves these schools and enters a commercial house, there is no abrupt change in the subjects which he has to think about. He has a firm grasp of the grammar of the two foreign languages, and can, within natural limits, fluently write *and converse* in both of them. He is familiar with geography and with the conditions of life in different parts of the world. He is well grounded in advanced arithmetic. He has facility in composition. He has been trained in accurate habits of observation. His reasoning powers have been abundantly exercised on subjects similar to those which present themselves to him in his daily life. When he comes to London or Paris he can fully understand what is said to him, and finds himself familiar with the conditions of life which prevail there. In other words, he has been prepared to take advantage of all opportunities of getting commercial experience. These schools may not be the best fitted to prepare lads for those occupations which are concerned with *making* things, but they are excellently well designed to prepare them for occupations which are concerned with *selling* things. Just as in industry a man needs constructive skill, so in commerce he is all the more likely to succeed if he possesses practised powers of apt expression. And it is the latter which the linguistic studies of the Realschulen are specially fitted to train.

Of the actual success of the schools there is no question. The boys who have gone through the training are doing well. Those of them who pass on to higher schools or to technical institutions are highly spoken of by their new teachers. And I was informed on several occasions that, though it is still too soon for the influence of these schools to have shown itself in any marked degree on the life of the city, there is every reason to believe that it is becoming powerful, and that it has already conduced to industrial and commercial efficiency.

The Realschulen of Berlin are fulfilling another and very important function in providing for the further education of the most promising pupils from the elementary schools. The great majority of the scholars in the Realschulen have received their early education in the public elementary schools of the city. Dr. Bertram showed me the following statistics on this point, the figures being for 1895 :—

Number of Boys entering the Realschulen of Berlin in the Year 1895	
(*a*) From public elementary schools - - - -	2,914
(*b*) From Gymnasien and other higher schools - - - (This total includes boys from the preparatory schools attached to those institutions.)	1,356
(*c*) From private schools and private tuition - - -	604
Total - - - - -	4,874

The following table shows the statistics, as affecting the Twelfth Realschule only, for the year ending Easter 1897 :—

——	From Elementary Schools.	From Gymnasien and other Higher Schools (including the Preparatory Schools attached to them).	From Private Schools and Private Tuition.	Total.
Summer half-year 1896.	141	89	86	316
Winter half-year 1896-97.	184	104	71	359

In the Seventh Realschule the Director, Dr. Michaelis, told me that the majority of the boys come from the elementary schools. The following figures, which he gave me, are for the past year :—

From public elementary schools - - - -	288
From Gymnasien and other higher schools, including the preparatory schools attached to them.	113
From private schools or private tuition - - - -	31

At the First Realschule (the schools are numbered in point of date of foundation) the Director was prevented from seeing me through illness, but one of the masters kindly gave me a good deal of information. He told me that the boys who entered the school from the public elementary schools on the completion of their twelfth year of age were the cleverest boys they got. He added, however, that the school was so full that pupils could not always be admitted into Quarta in accordance with the original plan. In consequence of this, many parents, who could afford to do so, withdrew their children from the elementary school at 10 and entered them in the lowest class of the Realschule in order to secure a place. This bore somewhat heavily on the poorer parents. He himself liked the boys to come at 12 and not at 10, and therefore deplored this practical difficulty in the way of admitting boys at the later age. But I did not hear complaints of the same hardship at any other of the schools.

At the Ninth Realschule the Director, Dr. Rosenow, kindly gave me the figures for the winter half year 1896–97. They are as follows :—

Boys from public elementary schools - - - -	261
From Gymnasien and other higher schools, including the preparatory schools attached to them.	106
From private schools and private tuition - - -	33
	400

He also spoke in high terms of the ability and promise of the boys who came at 12 years of age from the top class of the elementary schools. On the other hand an experienced teacher at the Seventh Realschule told me that, for the less talented boys from the elementary schools, the work of the Realschulen was too hard.

Of the attitude of the elementary school teachers towards the Realschulen I received the following account:—Dr. Michaelis told me that they willingly allowed their best scholars to go on to the Realschulen, and that there were no jealousies between the staffs of the two grades of school. At another school (the first), on the other hand, I heard that the elementary school teachers like to keep their best boys as long as they can. The two accounts are not really incompatible. It is natural that the elementary schools should like to retain, at any rate until their twelfth year, the lads who are the salt of their classes. And Dr. Bertram's scheme not only allowed for, but actually encouraged this, on the ground that these promising scholars are the "yeast" of the elementary schools. What the elementary school teachers object to is the premature withdrawal of their best boys at 10 years of age, and, so far as this is done, it is in contradiction to the original intention of the plan. In view, however, of this seeming conflict of opinion, it seemed to me wise to consult on the subject a leading teacher in an elementary school. Lehrer Tews, a distinguished teacher in one of the primary schools of Berlin, whose writings on educational subjects are favourably known in this country, was kind enough to explain to me the point of view of his colleagues. He spoke in warm terms of praise of the work of the Realschulen, and declared that Dr. Bertram's scheme was good for the elementary school pupils and widely popular among the working classes. He complained, however, that there was hardly any intercourse between the teachers in the secondary and those in the elementary schools, and expressed the opinion that there is need for change in the curriculum of the latter grade of school. At present a boy can get into the top class of the elementary school when he is 11 years of age. There is, however, in the elementary school curriculum as at present arrranged, no sufficient provision for carrying on his studies to the more advanced point which he is intellectually qualified to reach. The top class of the elementary school is, indeed, often broken up into two sections in order to allow some higher work to be done with the most promising boys, but Herr Tews thinks that it would be better to have one class for each year of elementary school life, and to allow French to be taught in the top class. If this were done, the boy at 12 would be ready to enter Quarta in the Realschule, even if French began in Quinta in those schools—a possible change to which I shall refer more in detail at a later stage. At present, French is not allowed to be taught in the public elementary schools (Volksschulen), though it is permitted in a higher grade of

elementary schools called Mittelschulen.* There are, however (with one trifling exception) no Mittelschulen in Berlin, and it will be remembered that the Education Department made it one of its conditions, before approving Dr. Bertram's scheme for the Berlin Realschulen, that the establishment of those schools should not be allowed to alter the curriculum of the primary schools. The fact is that this question cannot be simply argued on pedagogical grounds. It is a problem which must be considered to have a social and even a political aspect, as well as an educational one. It will be seen, however, on a later page that the difficulties in the way of adopting Herr Tews' suggestion are grave, if not actually insuperable.

I now turn to the reports which I received of the boys who come from the private schools. The verdict was unfavourable. At the first Realschule I heard that a boy from a private school had recently presented himself for admission into the top class, but was found on examination to be only qualified for Quarta. The Director of the Ninth Realschule told me that he had often reason to complain of the attainments of the pupils from private schools. They are often badly grounded, having been allowed to learn a number of subjects indifferently, instead of a few subjects well. But, as is well known, the position of private schools is much worse in Prussia than in this country or in Denmark. Admittedly bad as many of our private schools are, we have a large and increasing number which are admirable in their efficiency. The excellent private schools, for example, which in England prepare so large a proportion of boys for the great public schools, are a characteristic feature of our educational system.

The relation of the Realschulen to the Gymnasien and Realgymnasien is a more difficult subject. In the first place, it should be clearly understood that the fact of large numbers of pupils entering the Realschulen from other secondary schools does not mean that the former are drafting from the latter a considerable proportion of their older scholars. The figures include the boys who come from the preparatory schools attached to the Gymnasien and Realgymnasien, and who leave at nine for the Realschulen. These boys have merely got their preparatory education at a Vorschule attached to another secondary school instead of at a public elementary school, an arrangement natural and permissible enough. There are no preparatory schools in connexion with the Realschulen themselves, nor, from all that I heard, is there any likelihood of any such being established.

On the other hand, there is no doubt that many boys do go to the Realschulen, who, under former conditions, would have gone to the Gymnasien or Realgymnasien. This, however, is not necessarily an evil, because everyone agrees that a certain pro-

* Cp. *Allgemeine Bestimmungen betreffend das Volkschul-Wesen* (Berlin. W. Hertz), pp. 7 and 23.

portion of scholars have no natural aptitude for classical studies, and derive little advantage from them. But many of these same boys, though failures in the classical school, might have turned out differently under other treatment. If they had had a first-rate modern education (not a flashy substitute for the intellectual drill which a good classical education affords, but a training as exact and as searching as the classical only applied with other instruments of liberal culture), they might have responded to the opportunity and made better use of their school time. For boys like these, the Realschulen are a godsend. On this point I thought it right to consult some teachers of great experience in the work of the Gymnasien, so as to avoid anything like a one-sided judgment. Dr. Schulze, Director of the Französisches Gymnasium in Berlin, was so good as to give me much useful information on this subject. He told me that the Realschulen have been a blessing to the Gymnasien in that they have relieved the latter of a number of boys, not necessarily stupid, but unfitted for the classical training. The new movement, in short, has helped to free the Gymnasien of the element which the Germans expressively call "Ballast," or, as we might say, "dead-weight." But it should be understood that this does not mean that the Realschulen have merely provided a refuge for the boys of inferior abilities. That is far from being the case. What has happened is rather that they have afforded a more suitable curriculum for lads to whom the classical education is naturally uncongenial. Speaking from a singularly wide experience (he was head of a Realschule before he was appointed Director of the celebrated Französisches Gymnasium), Dr. Schulze further assured me that the ethical influence of the Realschulen are not inferior to those of the Gymnasien, and that their course of studies affords an admirable discipline for the future occupations in which the majority of their pupils are destined to earn their bread.

On the other hand, the existing arrangement of the curricula of the higher schools does not meet all the difficulties which, perhaps inevitably, arise. In the Gymnasien and Realgymnasien, Latin begins in the lowest class (Sexta). A boy enters these schools at 10 years of age. But, at that early stage in his school career, his parents do not always know what his intellectual aptitudes may prove to be. If it turns out in a year or two that he has no disposition for a classical education, he is turned over to a Realschule, having spent eight hours per week throughout his first and second years at the Gymnasium or Realgymnasium on a subject (Latin) which finds no place in the curriculum of the Realschule. Thus, apart from the intellectual advantage which he may have gained from this preliminary discipline (and this unhappily is not always great), he finds that he has started on the wrong lines. In order to meet this difficulty, there is a movement in favour of postponing Latin in the Gymnasium and Realgymnasium course till the fourth class from the bottom, and of postponing the commencement of Greek

in the Gymnasien from the fourth class from the bottom (III. B.), where it at present begins, to the sixth form from the bottom (II. B.). The three lowest classes of all the different types of higher school (Gymnasien, Realgymnasien, Oberrealschulen, and Realschulen, as well as of Progymnasien and Realprogymnasien) would then be doing the same work, and the transference of a boy from one type of school to another could be deferred till his 12th year without any dislocation of his studies. The December Conference of 1890 was adverse to such a change, on the ground that, for their due success, classical studies must be begun at an earlier stage of school life than such a scheme would allow. But, in spite of this, the new plan finds many advocates, and the matter may be regarded as now under active consideration.* While the leaders of the Realschulen admit that it is indispensable to the State to have a certain proportion of its scholars trained in the classical studies, on the ground that the latter contain the key to much of the significance of modern culture, they contend that economy of administration will compel an attempt to combine several of the present types of secondary schools, and to defer the beginnings of classical training till a later stage in a lad's school career. All secondary schools will then have, up to a certain point, a common foundation. The branches, leading to the different kinds of intellectual preparation necessary to the various professions and careers, will fork off at a higher point in the school organisation. Some critics maintain it to be a delusion to hold that early training in the classics is indispensable to high attainment in that subject. If a boy, they argue, is really well disciplined in other languages during the earlier years of his school life, he will be intellectually prepared to make amazingly rapid progress in the classics even if he begins to study them at an age which seems to our present notions far too late. And they further urge that it is psychologically right to begin with studies which are nearer to the lad's mental outlook than dead languages can ever be; that language is a living thing and should be studied as such; and that, when a boy has mastered one or two living languages (not as a courier might master them, for mere purposes of conversation, but as a scholar), he will be ready to comprehend the real significance of grammatical forms which, if he first approaches them in a dead form, seem to him unintelligible and arbitrary. The whole subject is as difficult as it is important. Experience alone can solve the problem. I may, however, mention that the experience already gained in the education of girls, who up to the age of 18 have had no classical instruction, but at that point take up the study of Latin and Greek, has a direct bearing on the question. We should, nevertheless, all agree that nothing would fully compensate for the loss of that high standard of classical scholarship, which is one of the most precious possessions of

* Dr. Gropp of the Oberrealschule at Charlottenburg kindly gave me an admirable memorandum on this point.

modern culture. It may well be, however, as Professor Pappenheim (himself a veteran teacher in a Gymnasium) put it to me, that the new movement will compel the upholders of the classical education to revise some of their methods, and to avail themselves to the full of all the new interests which the advance of classical archæology and the improvements in text-books, illustrations and reproductions of classical art, have enabled them to introduce into the daily work of the school. There are different types of mind among boys as among grown men, and different studies appeal to (and therefore are most fitted to cultivate) the different varieties among them. The problem is rather one of adjustment of educational means to ends than of conflict on points of principle. For only ill-informed persons would disparage the inestimable benefit of a good classical education.

Here it may not be out of place to allude to a fallacy which seems to lurk under the use sometimes made of the terms "Realschule" and "Realien." The ideas and ideals conveyed by a classical education, as we know it in its best tradition, are not less vitally necessary to culture and character than is the knowledge imparted by a curriculum confined to the study of the physical sciences, of mathematics, of living languages, and of so much history and literature as can be taught to the pupil through the instrument of modern languages or of his mother-tongue. The word "Realschule" is, in fact, the epitome of an old controversy. The true contrast is between what the Germans call "Verbalismus" and "Realismus," *i.e.*, between a mechanical form of teaching, bereft of the penetrating influence of living thought and principle, and an education which touches at all points the experience and conduct of the pupil. But neither the classical nor the modern curriculum has a monopoly of Verbalismus. Both alike may, in the hands of a dull or uncultivated teacher, become deadening and deficient in true stimulus. Both, again, may be made the vehicle of the highest kind of education. Each at its best will react on the other. The example of the more skilful and enthusiastic teachers on the modern side will help the classical teachers to get more educative force out of classical studies. On the other hand, everyone who has appreciated the privilege of a classical education will admit that the pioneers of modern education on its linguistic and humane side have much to learn from those classical teachers who are working under the influence of a noble tradition. Shrewd observers believe that it will probably be found necessary to maintain in Prussia three types of secondary education, viz.: (1) that which is predominantly classical; (2) that which is modern, but predominantly scientific and mathematical; and (3) that which is not less purely modern than the second type, but lays the greatest stress on linguistic and humane studies. Each type apparently appeals to a different class of mind. It may, indeed, be plausibly argued that to an Englishman of the governing classes there is something in the political and administrative history of the Roman Empire which is actually nearer

to much in his own personal experience than is to be found in the chronicles of many countries at a date far less remote from his own time. The question which remains unanswered, and which only the experience of a generation can answer, is whether it is possible for a boy to get as surely at the heart of the classical tradition through the medium of translations as through the study of the Greek and Latin writers in their original form. Much is to be said on both sides of the question, but there is little doubt that the task of initiating a lad into the classical tradition becomes far harder when the teacher cannot put into his hand the actual books in which that tradition is enshrined.

It will also be admitted that there is probably a permanent need in the educational system of a modern State for schools which teach Latin but not Greek. The bearing of a knowledge of Latin on the study of French will not be overlooked in this connexion. And certain callings—*e.g.*, that of a chemist—necessarily require a knowledge of Latin. But the point now being fought out in Prussia is whether the required modicum of knowledge of Latin can be acquired, with some saving of time, at a much later stage in school life, in order that the earlier years of a lad's studies may be wholly devoted to subjects more nearly related to his own experience and circle of thought. It is, however, the class of secondary schools which teach Latin but not Greek—viz., the Realgymnasien—which are alleged to be suffering more than the Gymnasien from the rivalry of the new Realschulen. On this point I derived much advantage from a conversation with Dr. Schwalbe, the distinguished Director of the Dorotheenstädtische Realgymnasium in Berlin. He cordially admitted the value of the services which the Realschulen are rendering to the State, but urged the need for moderation. He considers the worst side of the matter to be that many parents who would formerly have sent their lads through the nine years' course in a Realgymnasium, now content themselves with the six years' course in a Realschule. It is true, he continued, that the Realschulen have relieved the Gymnasien and Realgymnasien of a certain amount of their "Ballast," but they have also drawn away more promising pupils. His own school has suffered. Once it had (excluding the Preparatory Department) 664 pupils; now it has 554. Certainly the classes were formerly too full, but this large decline is undesirable. I cannot, however, leave this subject without adding how entirely free from partisanship were Dr. Schwalbe's comments on the situation. Yet, from what he told me, I could not help feeling that the Realgymnasien (with their curriculum which includes Latin but excludes Greek) are likely to be the real sufferers from the new movement. Perhaps this is inevitable. Twenty-five years ago many of the moderate reformers of Prussian secondary education thought that sufficient sacrifice would have been made to modern ideas if Greek were thrown to the wolves. The recognition of the Realgymnasium (with Latin in its curriculum but no Greek) marks this stage of opinion. But the tide of change has

swept on, and gone far beyond the point of compromise marked by the constitution of the Realgymnasien. One teacher assured me that the Realgymnasium was a false compromise, and that the struggle of the future lies between the frankly classical and the frankly modern ideal of education. It may well prove, however, that the struggle will not be an internecine one; that the Realgynasium will hold its own and that all the three types of school will prove equally indispensable to the modern State. But the closer the administrative connexion between them, and the more intimate the relations between their teachers, the less likelihood is there of unnecessary conflict, of injurious misunderstanding, of false extremes Everything points towards the desirability of unifying the different types of secondary school in such a way as fully to preserve their present freedom of variation. To cut off the classical, the semi-classical, and the modern schools into distinct and possibly jealous divisions would be to court the very dangers which it is desirable to avoid. In close union, by constant conference and interchange of ideas and of experience, each type of school will influence the other. And, therefore, the Prussian Government has been careful to set up no wall of administrative partition between the various kinds of secondary school.

V.

The educational value of the Realschulen, as of all schools, chiefly depends on the skill, the culture, the character, and the sympathy of the teachers. I was, therefore, particularly anxious to spend a great deal of time in the class-rooms, not merely passing in and out, but listening to whole lessons and drinking in the spirit which animates the teaching. All that I saw impressed me extremely. Great efforts have been made to secure the services of highly cultivated masters, and there are few teachers now on the staff of any of the Berlin Realschulen who have not enjoyed a university education, and have furthermore been trained in the science and art of teaching. The lessons which I heard in history and literature were excellent. A religious lesson given to the highest class in the Seventh Realschule struck me as being more stimulating than any lesson of the kind which I had heard since leaving Rugby. The lessons in natural history were well adapted to stimulate interest and to train the powers of accurate observation; but the boys do practically no work in the laboratory, and this struck me as one of the most marked differences between these Realschulen and our modern secondary schools. In fact, one teacher told me that he thought we were overdoing practical work in the laboratory. But this view is based on a misunderstanding. The fact is, that the Realschulen follow a curriculum which is based on linguistic studies with a due addition of mathematics. Natural science (for the full educational value of which practical work in the laboratory is indispensable) is not, as is often the case with us, the backbone of the course of studies. Natural history and a certain modicum

of physics and chemistry are thrown into the curriculum of the Realschulen as necessary to general culture, just as in our organised science schools a certain proportion of literary studies is held to be requisite to correct what would otherwise be the one-sidedness of the curriculum.

A great deal turns, therefore, on the way in which modern languages are taught in these Realschulen. All over Western Europe the methods of teaching modern languages are receiving careful attention. In our own country the Modern Language Association is rendering great public service in boys' secondary schools, while the same tendency towards giving careful thought to the principles of modern language teaching is to be observed in our higher schools for girls.* No pains have been spared to raise the modern language lessons in the Berlin Realschulen to a very high level of excellence. I have heard nothing more remarkable than some of the lessons in French and English which I was permitted to attend in the Twelfth Realschule. The boys seem to know as much about London as if they were being educated in a London secondary school. Everything is made vivid and real to them. The aim is to steep the pupils in the genius of the language; to make them think of it, and feel it, as a living thing, as an instrument of natural expression actually being used by real people, not as a dead puzzle to be put together by skilfully remembered rules. The lessons on French language and literature are almost entirely given in French; those on the English language and literature in English. But mere conversational aptitude is far from being the aim of the teaching. The languages are indeed spoken (and with an admirable accent), but not merely to facilitate intercourse in travel or correspondence, but because a language is a living thing, and its constructions and usages can only be understood as parts of living and growing instrument of human expression. The aim is that the boys should get the "feel" of a language, which is indispensable to an instinctive mastery of its idioms. Great stress is laid on the necessity of having German teachers to teach foreign tongues in these schools. It is held that only a German teacher can fully enter into the difficulties naturally encountered by a German boy. But no labour is spared to secure the full preparation of the teachers. They are picked men to start with. They have had the best general education which the universities can give. Many of them are scholars of great eminence. Then they are trained in the art of teaching, and are required to ground themselves in the science of education. Then they go abroad for long periods of study and steep themselves in the life of the people whose language they are to teach. They revive their knowledge and improve their pronunciation by frequent visits to foreign countries.

* *Cp.* an interesting paper read by Mrs. Lecky at a Conference on the Teaching of Modern Languages held at the Kensington High School in March 1897 on the invitation of the Council of the Girls' Public Day School Company, and attended by head and assistant mistresses of the Company's schools.

Many of the teachers have had singularly wide opportunities of learning foreign tongues. I may take, for instance, the case of the Director of the Twelfth Realschule, who, after completing his studies at a Gymnasium and at the University, where he studied ancient and modern languages and history, went to the École pratique des Hautes Études, and to the École des Chartes in Paris, spending nearly three years in France. Then for six months he was an assistant master in an English school. Later, he again visited France for nine months, and spent a further period in England. He has travelled much in America, and frequently revisits both England and France.* In short, with great pains and foresight, a brilliant staff of teachers has been formed in order to lay the foundation of what is in effect a new tradition in liberal education. Without such a staff of teachers, specially chosen and prepared for their new and difficult duties, the whole experiment would have ended in failure, producing nothing but a cheap and nasty alternative to a good classical or semi-classical education.

I found, however, great misgivings as to the wisdom of not beginning French till Quarta, and English till Secunda, in these Berlin Realschulen. This, it will be remembered, is the chief mark which distinguishes these schools from others of the corresponding type elsewhere. In the ordinary Realschulen French begins in Sexta, the bottom class. In the Berlin Realschulen it is deferred (for administrative as well as pedagogical reasons) till two years later, viz., till Quarta. English, again, begins in the ordinary Realschulen in Tertia; in the Berlin Realschulen it begins one year later. Dr. Tanger, a master in the Seventh Realschule, and the accomplished co-editor of one of the best-known English-German and German-English dictionaries, assured me that French was begun too late in these schools. Speaking English with idiomatic force, he said, "We "have to work the boys like niggers. The ordinary boys find the "work killing." The fact is that Quarta is the *pons asinorum* of the Berlin Realschulen. It is there that the duller boys stick fast, and at that point that many of them leave. Without entering into the rather vexed question whether the boys in German secondary schools are made to work too hard (an opinion which I heard expressed on all hands, and sometimes combined with an equally strong opinion that the boys in many English secondary schools do not work hard enough), I may remark that it struck me as being the growing conviction among the teachers in the Berlin Realschulen that French should begin in Quinta, the second class from the bottom, and English in Tertia, or one year earlier than is at present the case. Many experienced masters expressed it as their opinion that the framers of the Berlin scheme had overshot the mark; that it was too early to begin French in Sexta, but that Quarta was too late; and that a middle course would be better for all con-

* Cp. *Erster Bericht über das Schuljahr 1895–6 Zwölfte Realschule zu Berlin* (Berlin: Druck von W. Pormetter), p. 15.

cerned. This view, I may add, is shared by Dr. Ulbrich, the experienced Director of the Friedrichs-Werdersche Oberrealschule in Berlin, and by Dr. Gropp, the Director of the Städtische Oberrealschule at Charlottenburg—teachers who regard the matter from outside the Realschulen, but speak from intimate knowledge of the points at issue. The question, however, has an important bearing on the connexion between the Realschulen and the elementary schools. The Realschulen ought not to begin the study of foreign tongues at a point below that at which the promising boys from elementary schools enter their classes. Is it possible, therefore, so to modify the curriculum of the Berlin elementary schools as to enable the most promising boys to learn the elements of French in the last year (*i.e.*, their twelfth) which they spend in the highest class of the elementary school before passing on to the Realschule? To this question Herr Tews answers confidently in the affirmative. I believe, too, that Dr. Ulbrich shares Herr Tews' opinion. But, though it will be at once admitted that this solution of the difficulty appears a simple and natural one, I found that some of the most experienced teachers in the Realschulen regard it as impracticable. The fact is that, in the new methods of modern language teaching, the first year's lessons are by far the greatest task on the teacher's skill and knowledge. It is much more difficult to get new beginners to take the first steps in learning a new language when the instruction is imparted in that language itself (a point on which great stress is laid) than it is to carry forward the studies of pupils who have already made some advance in their knowledge of the language. Now, it is asked, how can the teachers in the Berlin elementary schools undertake this extremely difficult piece of work? Are they qualified for the task? If they attempted it, would it not mean that they would do the work badly, and actually injure, or at least not promote, the efficiency of the Realschulen? Would it not become necessary to plant out in the elementary schools, at great and increasing expense, outposts in the form of trained teachers of the Realschule type? To this, I imagine, Herr Tews would reply that changes would certainly be necessary in the present methods of training teachers for the Prussian elementary schools. But such changes he, for one, regards as indispensably necessary to the future welfare of Prussian elementary education. Then, carrying the war into the enemy's camp, he would retort that, if the study of a foreign language is to begin in the Realschulen in Quinta, *i.e.*, in the eleventh year of the normal pupil, the lads will have to be transferred from the elementary schools a year earlier than was contemplated in Dr. Bertram's excellent scheme. But this would do exactly what Dr. Bertram desired to avoid, viz., it would deprive the elementary schools of their "indispensable yeast." To this, again, it would be answered that Dr. Bertram's plan has already in part broken down, in so far as boys are transferred from the elementary schools (though without free places) at 10 years of age, in order to enter the Realschulen at the beginning of the six years' course.

The question is thus a highly interesting and important one. In point of fact, it is the pivot round which, in the public education of Berlin, there turns the controversy now occupying attention in the educational system of every country in Western Europe, *i.e.*, the transition of clever boys from the curriculum of the elementary to that of the secondary school. This is a question which can only be solved by good feeling on each side. And therefore it is extremely important that the personal relations between the teachers in elementary and secondary schools should be friendly, sympathetic, and close. Estrangement between these two divisions in the army of teachers can only lead to friction and misunderstanding on points which are of crucial importance to the public interest.

VI.

It remains to state in more detail what class of boys attend the Berlin Realschulen. On this subject I made careful inquiry, and received much valuable information from the directors of several of the schools.

In the Seventh Realschule Dr. Michaelis supplied me with the following statistics:—

Occupations of Parents of Boys in the Seventh Realschule (Half Year 1896–97).

Tradesmen and shopkeepers	159
Manufacturers and artisans*	142
Farmers (residing in environs of Berlin)	7
Künstler und Techniker	8
Higher grades of public service	4
Lower grades of public service and clerks	101
Independent means	11

In the Ninth Realschule Dr. Rosenow showed me the following figures:—

Occupations of Parents of Boys in the Ninth Realschule (Half Year 1896–97).

Higher grades of public service	None.
Lower grades of public service, including clerks	120
Künstler und Techniker	29
Manufacturers (large and small)	34
Tradesmen and shopkeepers	97
Artisans working on their own account	11
Employées in industry, including labourers	92
Officers (commissioned and non-commissioned)	5
Servants	4
Independent means	18

The words Künstler und Tekniker are hard to render in English. The category is regarded as including such widely

* Unfortunately I am unable in this case to give separate figures showing how many were employers of labour and how many artisans working for wages or on their own account. In the tables which follow more details are given.

varying occupations as those of higher artisans, engineers in a small way of business, actors, and musicians employed in orchestras.

The following table is taken from the recently issued report of the Twelfth Realschule, and has reference to the same half-year as the statistics given above, as well as to the half-year immediately preceding :—

—	Higher Grades of Public Service.	Lower Grades of Public Service, including Clerks.	Künstler und Techniker.	Farmers.	Manufacturers (large and small).	Shopkeepers and Tradesmen.	Artisans and Employées.	Independent Means.
Summer half-year, 1896	3	87	13	7	16	89	87	14
Winter half-year, 1896-7 -	4	95	12	6	18	86	109	19

It is interesting to compare these tables with the corresponding statistics for the Friedrichs-Werdersche Oberrealschule in Berlin, kindly given to me by Dr. Ulbrich.

—	Per Cent. of whole.
Shopkeepers and manufacturers - - - -	70·
Higher grades of public service - - - -	2·6
Lower grades of public service and clerks - - -	12·8
Künstler und Techniker - - - - -	2·8
Independent means - - - - - -	5·
Workmen - - - - - - -	5·4
Farmers - - - - - - - -	1·4

The Oberrealschulen naturally provide for the needs of a somewhat wealthier class than do the Realschulen. But a great many boys go on from the Realschulen to take advantage of the additional three years of teaching provided by the Oberrealschulen. The whole system is carefully articulated, and provides a ladder of public education from the elementary school to the Technical Institute. No less than 24·8 per cent. of the boys now in the Friedrichs-Werdersche Oberrealschule have been at one time in the Realschulen.

The popularity of the Realschulen is enhanced by their cheapness. The school fee is only 4*l.* a year Since last Easter, boys from outside the municipal boundary of Berlin are required to pay 6*l.* 10*s.* per annum. The municipality of Berlin provides free places in the Realschulen to the extent of 10 per cent. of the whole. These free places are assigned in consideration of the need and deserts of the parents and not by competitive examination. To gain a free place the boy must have completed

to the satisfaction of the teacher one year's work in the top class of an elementary school. The free scholars are not in any way looked down upon by the other boys; indeed, they are intellectually the cream of the schools. There are no scholarships in aid of maintenance.

The method adapted for the award of the free places is as follows:—The parent applies to the head master (Director). The latter forwards the application to the Magistrat. The applicant has to state his income, the information being of course regarded as confidential. The Magistrat then causes private inquiry to be made into the circumstances of the family and ascertains from the finance department of the Town Council the amount paid by the applicant in rates and taxes.

No higher limit has been fixed for the age of boys in the school. I found at the First Realschule one pupil who was 20 years of age. But this, of course, is very exceptional. The idea of the schools is that boys should enter at 10 or 12 and leave at 16. The following table, which is printed in the recently issued report of the Twelfth Realschule for the school-year 1896–7, shows the various ages of the boys in that school:—

—	Number of Boys born in							
	1887.	1886.	1885.	1884.	1883.	1882.	1881 and before.	1880 and before.
Summer half-year, 1896 -	1	8	20	60	83	85	37	22
Winter half-year, 1896-7 -	4	19	30	79	90	87	33	17

The holidays of the Realschulen extend to 11 weeks in each year. A fortnight is given at Christmas, a fortnight at Easter, nearly a week at Whitsuntide, five weeks in the summer, and a week at Michaelmas.

The daily hours of work in school are six in the upper part of the school and five or five and a half in the lower classes. But this total includes three hours a week of gymnastics and two hours of singing. From the singing lessons most of the boys in the upper part of the schools are excused owing to the break in their voices. In addition to this the upper boys have from two to three hours home-work, the middle boys about two hours, and the lower boys about one and a half hours.* I cannot help feeling that the strain of work is too great, and that in the long run it would be more economical in the public interest to sacrifice some of the intellectual advantages undoubtedly bestowed by these schools in order to proect growing lads from possible

* I found that different accounts are given of the length of time required by home lessons. The explanation is that, owing to domestic interruptions, some boys are much longer over their home lessons than they need be.

overstrain at a critical age. This, however, is a point on which it is impossible to express a confident opinion. Some observers think that the tendency in most German secondary schools is to overtax the boys. Others retort that in many English secondary schools the boys are not made to work hard enough. Perhaps the truth lies between these two extremes.

Every lesson lasts 50 minutes. The hours of work on Tuesdays and Fridays are longer than on other days.

The boys have each to spend about 8*s.* 6*d.* a year on books, or about 4*l.* 10*s.* during a course of six years' work in the school. School fees are paid quarterly in advance.

The procedure in case a boy fails to attend school is as follows: the class-master reports the matter the same day to the head master. The parents are required to report the cause on the second day of a boy's absence. If they fail to do so, the head master sends them an unpaid letter, *which the parents are bound to take in.* If the latter still fail to give a satisfactory explanation, the boy is dismissed. But there is no difficulty in securing regular attendance. Only rare cases of irregularity or truancy occur.

I have placed together in the appendix to this memorandum a statistical survey of the Berlin Realschulen, an account of their finances, tables showing the present occupations of former scholars and the occupations of their parents, and a translation (made by Mr. Twentyman) of the detailed curriculum of one of the schools.

MICHAEL E. SADLER.

APPENDIX.

Containing a Statistical Survey of the Berlin Realschulen, &c.

I.—Number of Scholars in these Schools.

At the present time the City of Berlin maintains twelve Realschulen, which are so placed as to meet the needs of the different quarters of the town. The first of these schools was established at Michaelmas, 1884; others followed in 1886, 1887, 1888, 1889, 1890, 1892, and 1893; the newest, the twelfth, was founded at Easter, 1895. Each school has its own building, specially designed for the purpose, except the twelfth, which is temporarily housed in hired premises until the new buildings, now in course of erection, are ready to receive it.

During the winter half-year, 1896–97, the total number of scholars in the twelve schools was 5,168. Of these, 601 came from outside the city limits of Berlin. Each school offers a six-years' course of instruction, and, as scholars are admitted at Michaelmas and Easter, there are normally two divisions in each class. In three of the schools, however, the lowest class is in one division only, while in four cases one division of a highest class has had to be subdivided into two parallel sections owing to the number of scholars being too large to be taught by one teacher. The twelfth and newest school will not reach its full development until the year, Easter, 1897–98, during which the two divisions of the top class will be established by the promotion of the boys who have so far reached only the second class.

The following table shows the number of boys in the various classes of the different schools during the winter half-year, 1897–98. It will be seen that the number of boys in the schools vary from 558 to 351, and that the two divisions of the fourth class are the most crowded. This is explained by the arrangement of the curriculum, which makes the fourth class the starting point for the free scholars from the elementary schools, and also the point in the school at which the work becomes most difficult for the ordinary boy.

Number of School.	Situation.	Date of Establishment.	Provided with its own Building.	Number of Scholars in Class												Total Number of Scholars.	Of whom there came from outside the City Boundaries—
				I.—Easter.	I.—Michaelmas.	II.—Easter.	II.—Michaelmas.	III.—Easter.	III.—Michaelmas.	IV.—Easter.	IV.—Michaelmas.	V.—Easter.	V.—Michaelmas.	VI.—Easter.	VI.—Michaelmas.		
I.	5 & 6 Alexandrinenstrasse -	Michaelmas 1884	April 1887 -	27	28	37	30	41	38	44	47	49	38	29	26	434	18
II.	4ª Weissenburgerstrasse -	„ 1886	August 1889 -	17	31	41	28	44	36	48	51	51	37	41	30	455	27
III.	8ª Steglitzerstrasse -	„ 1887	October 1891 -	23	32	39	34	42	39	52	51	51	48	51	34	496	182
IV.	Diestelmeyerstrasse -	„ „	April 1892 -	22	35	39	23 / 30 (I. / II.)	46	37	52	36	33	33	28	20	409	—
V.	102 Stephenstrasse -	„ 1888	„ 1891 -	26	34	40	30	48	48	64	51	45	40	47	37	530	15
VI.	80 Belle Alliancestrasse -	„ 1889	August 1892 -	29	19	30	24	33	30	42	42	38	39	30	25	381	23
VII.	47 Mariannenstrasse -	„ 1890	October 1893	25	16	37	28	40	41	50	51	44	40	35	25	432	51
VIII.	4 & 5 Rheinsbergerstrasse -	„ „	April 1893 -	21	9	19	31	30	46	50	56	30	26	45	45	363	10
IX.	22 Badstrasse -	Easter 1892 -	„ 1894 -	20	16	29	31	35	35	I. 43 / II. 47	I. 50 / II. 48	40	35	40	25	401	100
X.	21 Auguststrasse -	„ 1893 -	October 1895 -	11	12	38	32	45	45	50 / 50	45	50	47	50	34	558	34
XI.	9 & 10 Boeckhstrasse -	Michaelmas 1893 -	„ 1896 -	9	24	30	27	40	32	I. 49 / II. 32	44	40	27	27		351	61
XII.	96 Koppenstrasse -	Easter 1895 -	In hired premises. Building in course of erection.	—	—	12	18	40	42	66	48	48	36	37		358	80
			Total -	230	256	391	366	484	469	666	620	524	446	460	356	5,168	601

II.—Curriculum.

The following Table shows the Number of Classes, of Teachers, and of Lessons arranged for each of the Realschules during the Year 1897–8, and the Number of Scholars in the different Schools in the Winter Half-year, 1893–6.

Number of the School.	Number of Classes.	Number of Upper Teachers.	Number of Scholars. Winter. 1893.	1894.	1895.	1896.	Table of School Lessons. [The figures show the Number of different Lessons given in each Week.] Number of Lessons required to be given weekly by: Directors.	Upper Teachers (Oberlehrer).	Teachers (Lehrer).	Technical Teachers.	Total of Lessons required to be given.	These Extra Lessons are given and paid for as follows:— Form Lessons (Wissenschaftliche Stunden) and Writing Lessons at 2 Marks.	Technical Lessons, Singing and Drawing: At 2 Marks.	At 3 Marks.	Gymnastic Lessons at 2 Marks.	Total of Extra Lessons.	Total Number of Weekly Lessons. Form Lessons (Wissenschaftliche Stundenzahl).	Writing Lessons.	Drawing Lessons.	Singing Lessons.	Gymnastics.	Grand Total of Weekly Lessons.
I.	12	13	480	478	469	434	12	256	24	32	323	26	10	6	36	78	304	14	32	16	36	402
II.	12	13	469	452	442	435	12	260	24	32	328	20	6	10	38	74	304	12	28	30	38	402
III.	12	13	500	491	515	496	12	280	—	32	324	24	13	—	38	75	304	12	28	17	38	399
IV.	12	13	473	493	409	409	12	280	—	32	324	25	16	—	38	78	304	12	28	20	38	402
V.	13	13	478	492	529	530	12	278	—	32	322	55	15	2	41	113	353	12	31	18	41	435
VI.	12	13	394	397	389	381	12	282	—	32	326	22	8	12	36	78	304	12	28	24	36	404
VII.	12	13	421	494	481	432	12	284	—	32	328	20	12	8	36	76	304	12	28	24	36	404
VIII.	12	13	333	337	345	363	12	284	—	32	328	28	14	6	36	84	312	12	28	24	36	412
IX.	12	13	203	280	347	401	12	284	—	32	328	20	20	—	36	76	304	12	28	24	36	404
X.	14	13	233	326	402	558	12	286	—	32	330	71	21	—	42	134	357	12	32	21	42	464
XI.	12	13	108	236	336	351	12	286	—	32	330	18	16	—	36	70	304	12	28	20	36	460
XII.	{ 13 Summer - 12 / 14 Winter - 13 }		—	—	193	358	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
XII. School	Summer - -		12	264	—	32	308		66	19	—	39	124	330	12	29	22	39	432			
	Winter - -		12	286	—	32	330		73	22	—	42	137	359	12	32	22	42	467			
Total for all Schools	Summer - -		144	3,324	48	384	3,900		394	170	44	452	1,060	3,764	146	348	250	452	4,960			
	Winter - -		144	3,426	48	384	3,922		401	173	44	455	1,073	3,793	146	351	250	455	4,995			

From the foregoing table it will be seen that the directors are required to give 12 lessons each per week; and the upper teachers (Oberlehrer) who form, except in two schools, the whole of the regular staff, from 20 to 23 lessons per week. The extra lessons are paid for at the rate of two or three marks each. The expenditure upon these extra lessons, including extra lessons in class subjects, and in drawing, singing, and gymnastics, will amount during the year 1897–98 to 104,496 marks (5,224*l.*).

The summaries printed above are taken, with some abridgment, from the Stadthaushalts-Etat for 1897–98, Kapitel V. Abtheilung. 2. (Spezial-Etat, No. 11, pp. 10–12.)

III.—Finance.

The cost of the maintenance of the Realschulen.

In the year 1894–95, the Berlin Realschulen cost, for maintenance only, 40,249*l.* (804,981 marks). The receipts, almost entirely from school fees, amounted to 16,430*l.* (328,604 marks). The difference, 23,818*l.* (476,377 marks), was paid by the municipality.

The total cost for maintenance per scholar (the attendance in 1894–95 being 4,493) was thus 7*l.* 19*s.* (179 marks). The school fee charged was 4*l.* (80 marks). But as 10 per cent. of the school places are free, the average contribution paid by the municipality in respect of each scholar in attendance amounted to 5*l.* 6*s.* (106 marks).*

The following table shows the aggregate receipt and expenditure as regards the maintenance of these schools during recent years:—

Year.	Total Cost of Maintenance.	Total Receipts.	Number of Scholars.	Municipal Contribution per Head of Scholars.	Increase of Municipal Contribution per Head compared with previous Year.
	£	£		£ *s.* *d.*	*s.* *d.*
1892–93 -	29,852	13,083	3,658	4 11 6	—
1893–94 -	35,165	14,789	4,107	4 19 2	7 6
1894–95 -	40,249	16,430	4,493	5 6 0	6 10
1895–96† -	44,429	18,079	4,848 (Winter only.)	5 8 7	2 7
1896–97† -	49,410	18,633	5,168	5 19 1	10 6

† These figures, which are taken from the accounts in the Spezial-Etat, No. 11 (Realschulen) of the Stadthaushalts-Etat, 1897–98, are not strictly comparable with those given for the preceding years. On the one hand, they include certain minor items of extraordinary expenditure which are not covered by the earlier totals; on the other hand, they do not include several larger items, appearing in other sections of the municipal accounts, which are reckoned in the reports of the Schul-Deputation as part of the total cost of the Realschulen.

* Verwaltungs Bericht des Magistrats zu Berlin. 1894–95. Bericht der Städtischen Schul-Deputation, p. 7.

It will be seen from these figures that the total cost of the maintenance of the Realschulen has risen from 29,852*l.* in 1892–93 to 49,410*l.* in 1896–97. If the receipts are deducted, the net cost to the municipality for the five years in question appears to have been as under:—

Year.	Difference between Receipts and Expenditure paid by Municipality.	Municipal Contribution per Head of Scholars.
	£	£ s. d.
1892–3 - - -	16,768	4 11 0
1893–4 - - -	20,376	4 19 0
1894–5 - - -	23,818	5 6 0
1895–6 - - -	26,350	5 8 0
1896–7 - - -	30,776	5 19 0
Total for five years	118,088	—

The above figures for maintenance only.

These sums, it will be observed, are practically for maintenance only. They do not include the annual charges for the repayment of loans contracted for the building of the schoolhouses and purchase of sites, or expenditure on rebuilding and larger repairs, or pensions, or the cost of central administration. They do, however, include certain sums for structural repairs and the rent of hired premises for schools, the buildings of which were not completed.*

The municipal estimates for 1897–98 show in detail the sums required for the maintenance of the Realschulen under the various heads of expenditure. The receipts expected during the ensuing year are set down at 386,114 marks. Almost the whole of this sum (374,200 marks) is represented by school fees. The expenditure is calculated at 1,003,615 marks, leaving a balance of 617,501 marks (30,875*l.*) payable by the municipality. But this does not include the charges for repayment of loans, for pensions and central administration named above.

alaries.

By far the heaviest item in the expenditure for maintenance is naturally that of the salaries of the teachers. The following table shows that the amounts estimated as payable on account of teachers' salaries during the year 1897–8, with the sums actually paid for such services in the two preceding years† :—

	Year.		
	1895–6.	1896–7.	1897–8.
	£	£	£
Salaries of teachers - - -	32,098	36,025	37,668
Payments to teachers for extra lessons and for substitutes.	5,235	5,758	5,530
Total for teaching - -	37,333	41,783	43,198

* Stadthaushalts-Etat, 1897–8. Spezial-Etat, No. 11 (Realschulen), Vorbemerkungen, p. 1 and p. 8.

† Spezial-Etat, No. 11, 1897–8, p. 5.

The scale of salaries paid to the directors and other members of the teaching staff are as follows*:—

Directors (Headmasters) -	Salaries begin at 330*l.*, rising to 345*l.* after 7 years' and to 360*l.* after 14 years' service. Each headmaster has a house provided for him, or an additional allowance of 45*l.* per annum.
Upper teachers (Oberlehrer) (all university graduates who have been trained for teaching).	Salaries begin at 160*l.*, rising by increments of 15*l.* at triennial intervals to 235*l.* after 15 years' service, and thence by similar increments at quadrennial intervals to 280*l.* after 27 years' service. A quarter of the staff are also qualified for a special additional allowance (Funktionszulage) of 45*l.* a year. Thus one Oberlehrer receives 310*l.*, five receive 295*l.*, four 280*l.*, two 235*l.*, eight 220*l.*, fifteen 205*l.*, forty-three 190*l.*, thirty-seven 175*l.*, and thirty-eight 160*l.*

In consequence of the law passed in the summer of 1897 for increasing the salaries of members of the Civil Service, the Directors and upper teachers (Oberlehrer) of the Berlin Realschulen will in future receive from the municipality an annual increment of 30*l.* each.

Ordinary teachers (Lehrer) (teachers trained at a normal school, but either not having been educated at a university or not having completed their university course).	Only two teachers of this grade are now employed in the Berlin Realschulen. They are in receipt of salaries of 177*l.* or 157*l.*, with a special allowance of 27*l.* The salaries represent a considerable length of service.
Technical teachers -	Twenty-four teachers of this class are employed. Their annual salaries range from 115*l.* to 175*l.*

It should be added that a few of the teachers in the Realschulen receive extra remuneration for work done in the evening continuation schools. These payments, of course, do not appear in the estimates for the Realschulen, and are of small account, amounting only to a sum of about 820*l.*, which is divided among 23 teachers.

Those teachers who are definitely appointed as members of the staff are qualified, after satisfactory service of 10 years and upwards, for a pension calculated at the rate of one-sixtieth of their full salary multiplied by the number of their years of service. If a teacher dies during his term of service, his widow is entitled to a small compassionate allowance.

* Spezial-Etat, No.11, 1897–8, pp. 3 and 4, and *Cp.* "Statistisches Jahrbuch der Höheren Schulen," 1896–7, 1 Abteilung, pp. 16 and 84.

The following table summarises the expenditure on the maintenance of the 12 Berlin Realschulen under various heads, and enable the actual outlay of the last two years to be compared with that estimated for 1897–8. The statement is abridged from the municipal accounts* :—

Heads of Expenditure.	Year.		
	1895–6.	1896–7.	1897–8.
	£	£	£
1. Salaries of teachers	32,098	36,025	37,668
2. Payments for extra lessons and for substitutes.	5,235	5,758	5,530
3. School attendants	590	707	747
4. Payments for collection of school fees (paid to a teacher who undertakes the work).	106	108	108
5. Payments to school librarians	80	87	90
6. School apparatus, maps, &c.	945	1,000	1,010
7. Gymnastic appliances and other furniture	248	303	322
8. Heating, lighting, and water supply	1,489	1,999	2,075
9. Cleaning of schools	340	406	420
10. Structural repairs, insurance, and rent of rooms for schools, the buildings of which are not yet completed.	1,481	1,749	1,422
11. Prizes, school libraries, &c.	165	175	180
12. Sundry items of expenditure	703	386	392
13. Extraordinary expenditure (*e.g.*, introduction of incandescent gas light, equipment of a new school with apparatus, &c.).	949	707	216
Total expenditure	44,429	49,410	50,180
Total receipts	18,079	18,633	19,305
Difference paid by municipality of Berlin.	£26,350	£30,776	£30,875

IV.—School Fees and Area from which Scholars are drawn.

School fees.

Hitherto the fee payable by each scholar attending the Berlin Realschulen has been 80 marks (4*l.*) per annum, no difference being made in the case of boys whose parents lived outside the city boundaries. But the question of charging a higher fee in the case of those outside scholars was considered by the town council during last winter, with the result that from and after April 1, 1897, these boys will be required to pay 130 marks (6*l.* 10*s.*) per annum. As, in the year 1896–7, no less than 601 boys out of 5,168 attending the Realschulen came in from outside the city limits, this material increase in the fee will affect a considerable number of parents. The change will principally concern two schools, Nos. III. and IX., the first of which draws nearly one-third, and the other a quarter, of its scholars from outside the municipal boundary. On inquiry at school No. IX., which is situated in an industrial district in the

Higher fees to be charged in future for boys coming from outside municipal boundaries.

* *Viz.*, Stadthaushalts-Etat, April 1897–8, Kapitel v. Abt. 2. Spezial-Etat, No. 11, Realschulen, pp. 2–9.

extreme north of Berlin, I was informed by the headmaster that, though the actual number of boys from outside will probably not diminish in consequence of the future increase in the charge, the change will press rather hardly on the poorer parents who live in the neighbouring suburbs and desire to take advantage of the excellent education provided by these schools. Some of these poorer families, he thought, would not be able to afford the higher fee, but he expected that parents possessing larger means would send boys in increasing numbers from the outlying districts on the north of the city. There seems to be no likelihood of the municipal authorities of the outside communities giving scholarships to enable clever boys from poor families to attend the Berlin Realschulen. Local patriotism makes them prefer to keep such boys in their own schools. The headmaster of the 12th Realschule (nearly one-fifth of whose scholars come from outside the city boundaries) told me that several parents had expressed to him their wish to remove their residence to a point within the municipal limits in order that their sons may be qualified for admission to the schools at the lower fee. But, though the change may produce hard cases, I heard no one question the justice of the amended scale. The Realschulen, as will be seen from the figures given below, are far from being self-supporting, and it is thought to be only reasonable that those who do not contribute towards the rates should be required to pay more than ratepayers for educational privileges which the city funds help to provide. The whole question may be settled on another basis by the extension of the municipal boundaries, a subject which has been under consideration for some time.*

The following table† shows the place of residence of the parents of the scholars attending the Berlin Realschulen from 1892–95 :—

Year.	Berlin.	Scholars coming from			Foreign Countries.
		Province of Brandenburg, excluding Berlin.	Kingdom of Prussia, excluding Province of Brandenburg.	German Empire, excluding Prussia.	
1892–93 - -	3,151	394	62	32	19
1893–94 - -	3,629	425	24	13	16
1894–95 - -	3,921	533	22	6	11

* *Cp.* Mr. Pollard's "Study in Municipal Government: the Corporation of Berlin," p. 6.

† Verwaltungs-Bericht des Magistrats zu Berlin. No. 4. Bericht der Städtischen Schul-Deputation. 1892–93; 1893–94; 1894–95. These particulars are not given in reports before 1892–93.

V.—The Scholars.

Their previous place of education.

The great majority of the scholars enter the Berlin Realschulen from the primary schools. A few come from private schools or private tuition. A large minority come from other public secondary schools in the city or from the preparatory schools attached to them.

The extent to which the Realschulen are fulfilling their purpose of enabling the cleverer pupils from primary schools to carry forward their education to a higher point is shown by the following tables :—

Year.	Number of Scholars entering Realschulen from		
	Elementary Schools.	Private Schools.	Other Secondary Schools, including Preparatory Schools attached to Gymnasium, &c.
1894–95 - - -	2,627	557	1,299
1895–96 - - -	2,914	604	1,356
1896–97 - - -	3,207	623	1,381

The position of their parents.

The report of the Schul-deputation of the city of Berlin for the year 1894-95 contains some interesting particulars as to the trades and professions of the parents of the scholars in the Realschulen. They are classified as follows :—

Position of Parents.	Number of Scholars.
1. Higher officials - -	65
2. Officials of lower rank - -	1,176
3. Künstler und Techniker* -	231
4. Farmers - - -	65
5. Manufacturers and independent workmen.	336
6. Tradesmen - -	1,466
7. Employées of various kinds, porters, servants, &c.	942
8. Independent means - -	198
9. Unknown - - -	14

It will be observed that the schools have proved specially useful to the families of the lower grades of the Civil Service (of course a much wider category in Prussia than in England), as well as to those of tradesmen and employés.

* This head (Künstler und Techniker) is interpreted widely and includes painters, engineers, &c.

The following tables, compiled from the returns published in the school-reports for Easter 1896, shows in somewhat greater detail (1) the future occupation of the boys who obtained the leaving certificate in the Realschulen I.–IX. during the year 1895–96, and (2) the occupations of their parents. No leaving examination was held in schools X.–XII. during the year in question, as at that time their organisation was still incomplete. The top class in the 10th school was not formed until Michaelmas 1895.

Future Occupations of Pupils leaving with the "Leaving Certificate."

Realschule I.–IX.

—	I.	II.	III.	IV.	V.	VI.	VII.	VIII.	IX.	Total.
Going to an Oberrealschule	1	9	3	—	6	5	4	5	2	35
Going to an Industrial Art School.	—	—	—	—	—	1	—	—	—	1
Architect	2	—	—	—	—	1	—	2	—	5
Army officer	—	—	—	—	1	—	—	—	—	1
Baker	2	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	2
Bookseller	1	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	1
Building trades	—	1	—	—	—	1	—	—	—	2
Butcher	1	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	1
Carpenter	1	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	1
Clerks in public or private employ.	10	5	4	2	4	8	11	1	14	59
Clerks, bank	2	5	5	—	2	2	3	—	2	21
Engineers	6	2	1	4	3	6	2	5	—	29
„ electrical	1	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	1
„ marine	—	—	—	—	2	—	—	—	1	3
Farmer	3	—	1	—	1	—	—	1	—	6
Forest keeper	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	1	—	1
Gunsmith	—	—	—	—	—	1	—	—	—	1
Map-maker	—	—	—	—	—	—	1	—	—	1
Military service	—	—	—	—	—	2	—	—	—	2
Railway official	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	1	1
Sculptor	—	1	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	1
Surveyor	—	—	—	—	—	3	3	—	1	7
Teacher	3	1	—	1	2	4	2	1	1	15
Tradesman	14	10	4	6	2	5	3	16	8	68
Uncertain	4	—	—	2	—	—	—	—	—	6
Total	51	34	18	15	23	39	29	32	30	271

Occupations of Parents of Boys leaving the Realschule with the "Leaving Certificate."

Realschulen I.–IX.

——	I.	II.	III.	IV.	V.	VI.	VII.	VIII.	IX.	Total.
Higher Civil Service	—	—	—	—	—	1	2	—	—	3
Professions	3	5	1	2	3	2	2	3	—	21
Engineers and contractors	2	—	1	—	3	—	—	1	—	7
Manufacturers	6	1	1	1	1	2	1	1	2	16
Lower Civil Service and other clerks.	3	6	2	—	1	3	6	3	3	27
Farmers (and other agricultural employments).	3	1	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	4
Publicans and restaurant keepers.	2	—	—	1	1	1	—	3	1	9
Tradesmen	24	13	9	7	7	19	14	16	14	123
Police Force	1	—	—	1	2	2	1	—	2	9
Post Office Service	—	—	—	—	1	1	1	1	3	7
Tram and Railway Service	—	2	1	1	—	2	1	1	3	11
Door-keepers and Office Servants.	1	1	1	—	—	5	—	1	—	9
Independent means	4	5	2	2	4	—	—	2	2	21
Unknown	—	—	1	—	—	—	1	—	—	2
Total	49	34	19	15	23	38	29	32	30	269

Realschule I.

Father's Occupation.	Length of Time		Occupation chosen by the Pupil.
	In the School.	In the 1st Class.	
	Years.	Years.	
Tradesman	4½	1	Tradesman.
Bookseller	6	1	Bookseller.
Master baker	6⅓	1⅓	Uncertain.
Manufacturer	8⅓	2	Tradesman.
Office attendant	6	2	Clerk.
Clerk	6⅓	1	Tradesman.
Sausage-maker	6⅓	1	Butcher.
Master bootmaker	4	1	Elementary schoolmaster.
Master bootmaker	4	1	Uncertain.
Hairdresser	4	1	Tradesman.
Tradesman	7	1	
Independent means	6⅓	1½	Baker and confectioner.
Publican	4	1	Architect.
Tradesman	6	1	Engineer.
Tradesman	4	2	Uncertain.
Tradesman	5	2	Carpenter.
Music teacher	7⅓	2	Clerk.
Tradesman	5⅓	1	Tradesman.
Independent means	6¼	2	Farmer.

Father's Occupation.	Length of Time		Occupation chosen by the Pupil.
	In the School.	In the 1st Class.	
	Years.	Years.	
Restaurant-keeper	5	1	Civil Service.
Independent means	6½	1	Post Office clerk.
Tenant farmer	4	2	Farmer.
Tradesman	3	1	Uncertain.
Tradesman	5	1	Bank clerk.
Piano manufacturer	6½	1	Civil Service.
Tradesman	3	1	Tradesman.
Veterinary surgeon	1½	1	Civil Service.
Tradesman	8	1½	Engineer.
Tradesman	7	1	Teacher.
Tradesman	6½	1½	Tradesman.
Manufacturer	6	1	Tradesman.
Inspector	6½	2	Electrical Engineer.
Police sergeant	4	1	Teacher.
Farmer	2	1	Bank clerk.
Independent means	1½	1	Law Court clerk.
Factory owner	8	1	Tradesman.
Manufacturer	6	1	Tradesman.
Tradesman	7	1½	Engineer.
Master baker	4¾	1½	Baker.
Headmaster	5	1	Tradesman.
Master bootmaker	6½	2	Engineer.
Engineer	6	1	To an Oberrealschule.
Farmer	6	1	Farmer.
Manufacturer	6½	1	Tradesman.
Tradesman	6	1	Civil Service.
Clerk	6½	1	Tradesman.
Contractor	6½	1	Architect.
Gun-maker	9	2	Engineer.
Tradesman	6	2	Tradesman.

Realschule II.

Independent means	7	1	Tradesman.
Teacher	5½	1	Bank clerk.
Master tailor	5	1½	Post Office clerk.
Independent means	6½	1	Teacher.
Teacher	5	1½	Bank clerk.
Hospital attendant	5½	1½	Tradesman.
Forest keeper	4	1	To an "Oberrealschule."
Master potter	1	1	Building trade.
Law courts clerk	5½	1½	Law Court clerk.
House owner	5	1½	Post Office clerk.
Book-keeper	6½	1½	Tradesman.
Technical draughtsman	8½	1½	Engineer.
Tradesman	5	1½	To an Oberrealschule."
Tradesman	5	1	Tradesman.
Gilder	4	1	To an "Oberrealschule."
Municipal service	8½	2	To an "Oberrealschule."
Library clerk	5	1½	Bank clerk.
Clergyman	5¾	1	To an "Oberrealschule."
Tradesman	1	1	Tradesman.
Independent means	6	1	To an "Oberrealschule."
Sculptor	5½	1½	Sculptor.

Father's Occupation.	Length of Time		Occupation chosen by the Pupil.
	In the School.	In the 1st Class.	
	Years.	Years.	
Railway official - - -	5	1½	Post Office clerk.
Book-keeper - - -	6	1	To an "Oberrealschule."
Clerk - - - -	7	2	Bank clerk.
Tradesman - - -	6½	1½	To an "Oberrealschule."
Master painter - - -	6	1½	Tradesman.
Master farrier - - -	6	1	Tradesman.
Tradesman - - -	5½	1	Tradesman.
Machine manufacturer - -	6	1½	Engineer.
Master saddler - - -	5½	1	To an "Oberrealschule."
Teacher - - - -	5	1	Tradesman.
Railway clerk - - -	6	1	Tradesman.
Independent means - -	5½	2	Municipal Service.
Tradesman - - -	5½	1½	Bank clerk.
Realschule III.			
Tradesman - - -	4½	1	Engineer.
Manufacturer - - -	6½	1½	Bank clerk.
Tradesman - - -	8	1½	Clerk in military service.
Livery stable keeper - -	4½	1	Tradesman.
Bootmaker - - -	4	1	Bank clerk.
Master mason - - -	4½	1	Bank clerk.
Tradesman - - -	2	1	Clerk.
Engineer - - - -	5	1	To an "Oberrealschule."
Bootmaker - - -	4	1	Bank clerk.
Independent means - -	8	1½	Tradesman.
Independent means - -	5½	1	To an "Oberrealschule."
County court judge - -	4	1½	Farmer.
Railway guard - - -	2½	1	Civil Service.
Printer - - - -	4	1	To an "Oberrealschule."
Tradesman - - -	5½	1	Bank clerk.
Butler - - - -	6½	1	Civil Service.
Head clerk - - -	5	1	Tradesman.
Civil Service - - -	7	1½	Tradesman.
Realschule IV.			
Independent means - -	6½	1½	Engineer.
Tradesman - - -	7½	2	Tradesman.
Tradesman - - -	7	1½	Tradesman.
Engine driver - - -	4½	1	Tradesman.
Manufacturer - - -	6½	1½	Engineer.
Tradesman - - -	5	1	Uncertain.
Teacher - - - -	4	1	Teacher.
Tradesman - - -	5	1	Tradesman.
Watchman - - -	4	1½	Civil Service.
Goods agent - - -	3	1	Civil Service.
Independent means - -	5½	1	Engineer.
Tradesman - - -	5½	1	Uncertain.
Teacher - - - -	7½	2½	Engineer.
Restaurant keeper - -	3½	1	Tradesman.
Tradesman - - -	3½	1	Tradesman.

Realschule V.

Father's Occupation.	Length of Time		Occupation chosen by the Pupil.
	In the School.	In the 1st Class.	
	Years.	Years.	
Money order postman - -	3½	1	Bank clerk.
Tradesman - - -	4½	1	To an "Oberrealschule."
Engineer - - - -	5½	1	To an "Oberrealschule."
Tradesman - - -	6	1	Civil Service.
Master mason - - -	6	1	Engineer.
Bailiff - - - -	5½	1	To an "Oberrealschule."
Retired lieutenant - -	3	1	Bank clerk.
Upper teacher (Oberlehrer) -	3	1	To an "Oberrealschule."
Book-keeper - - -	7	1	Teacher.
Independent means - -	6	1	Tradesman.
Tanner - - - -	4½	1	Civil Service.
Policeman - - -	4	1	Post Office clerk.
Independent means - -	7	2	Engineer.
Independent means - -	6	1	Marine engineer.
Policeman - - -	6	1	Teacher.
Independent means - -	2½	1	Officer.
Florist - - - -	5½	1	Marine engineer
Master baker - - -	5½	1	Civil Service.
Engineer - - - -	4½	1	To an "Oberrealschule."
Engineer - - - -	4½	1½	Farmer.
Restaurant-keeper - -	5½	1	Engineer.
Factory owner - - -	7	2	Tradesman.
Headmaster of elementary school	4	1½	To an "Oberrealschule."

Realschule VI.

Restaurant keeper - -	5	2	Engineer.
Municipal Service - -	5½	1½	To an "Oberrealschule."
Tradesman - - -	4	1	Engineer.
Tradesman - - -	4½	1	Engineer.
Civil servant - - -	5½	1	Civil Service.
Messenger - - -	5½	1	Tradesman.
Tradesman - - -	2	1	Civil Service.
Bailiff - - - -	5½	1	Surveyor.
Tradesman - - -	5	1	Architect.
Tradesman - - -	5½	1	Land surveyor.
Master bootmaker - -	4	1	To an "Oberrealschule."
Joiner - - - -	5½	1½	Gunsmith (?).
Valet - - - -	4½	1	Civil servant.
Joiner - - - -	4	1	Surveyor.
Chemist - - - -	4½	1	Tradesman.
Tradesman - - -	4	2	To an industrial art school.
Tradesman - - -	5½	1	Civil servant.
Master mason - - -	2	1	Building trade.
Printer - - - -	4	1	Bank clerk.
Messenger - - -	4	1	Bank clerk.
Railway official - - -	3½	1½	Civil Service.
Policeman - - -	4	1	Teacher.
Municipal servant - -	4	1½	Engineer.
Municipal office attendant -	6	1	Post Office clerk.
Theatre attendant - -	4	1	Municipal Service.

Father's Occupation.	Length of Time		Occupation chosen by the Pupil.
	In the School.	In the 1st Class.	
	Years.	Years.	
Joiner	5	1½	To an "Oberrealschule."
Master butcher	6	1	To an "Oberrealschule."
Police sergeant	5	1½	Military service.
Glove-maker	4	1	Teacher.
Publisher	6	1	Tradesman.
Tradesman	3	1½	Engineer.
Elementary school teacher	6	1	Teacher.
Bootmaker	4	1	To an "Oberrealschule."
Post Office clerk	4	1	Teacher.
Cashier	5	1	Civil Service.
Teacher of gymnastics	5	1½	Tradesman.
Clerk (Municipal Service)	6	1	Military service.
Brewery owner	6	1½	Engineer.
Railway official	4	1	Tradesman.

Realschule VII.

Civil Service	4	1	Civil Service.
Civil Service	3	1	To an "Oberrealschule."
Coachman	4½	1½	Civil Service.
Civil servant	4	1½	Civil Service.
Joiner	4	1	Banker.
Lamplighter	4	1	To an "Oberrealschule."
Manager of a factory	1	1	Surveyor.
Tradesman	4	1	Tradesman.
Civil Service	3½	1½	Civil Service.
Accountant	4½	1	Surveyor.
Book-keeper	4½	1½	Engineer.
Civil servant	4	1½	Civil Service.
Tradesman	4	1	Banker.
Master painter	4	1½	Civil Service.
Telegraph clerk	4½	1	Civil Service.
Master tailor	4½	1	Map maker.
Tradesman	4½	1½	Tradesman.
Policeman	4½	1½	Tradesman.
Foreman of masons	4½	1½	Civil Service.
Fireman	4½	1½	Civil Service.
Master turner	4½	1	Engineer.
Civil Service	4	1	Teacher.
Master baker	5	1	To an "Oberrealschule."
Tradesman	4	1	Teacher.
Cattle dealer	4½	1½	Surveyor.
Railway official	4½	2	Civil Service.
Post Office van conductor	4	1	Civil Service.
(Unknown)	4½	1½	To an "Oberrealschule."
Headmaster of elementary school	3½	1	Banker.

Realschule VIII.

Publican	4	1	Tradesman.
Carpenter	4	1	Tradesman.
Railway clerk	4	1	To an "Oberr hule."

Father's Occupation.	Length of Time		Occupation chosen by the Pupil.
	In the School.	In the 1st Class.	
	Years.	Years.	
Police clerk	5	1	To an "Oberrealschule."
Master baker	4	1	Tradesman.
Mason	4	1	Architect.
Bootmaker	4	1	Tradesman.
Overseer in factory	4½	1	Tradesman.
Master locksmith	4½	1	Architect.
Goldsmith	4½	1	Tradesman.
Elementary school teacher	5	1½	Teacher.
Tradesman	4	1½	To an "Oberrealschule."
Door-keeper	4	1	Tradesman.
Independent means	4½	1	Engineer.
Tramway inspector	5	1½	Tradesman.
Tradesman	4½	1½	Tradesman.
Leather-dresser	4	1	Tradesman.
Post Office van conductor	5	1½	Tradesman.
Joiner	4	1	Tradesman.
Watchmaker	4	1	Engineer.
Restaurant-keeper	2½	1	To an "Oberrealschule."
Whip manufacturer	5½	1½	Forest-keeper.
Tradesman	5	1	To an "Oberrealschule."
Landed proprietor	5½	1	Farmer.
Tradesman	5½	1	Engineer.
Master locksmith	5½	1	Tradesman.
Musician	4½	1½	Tradesman.
Publican	5½	1	Tradesman.
Teacher	5½	1	Engineer.
Tradesman	2½	1	Tradesman.
Inspector	5	1	Clerk.
Engineer	5½	2	Engineer.

Realschule IX.

Brewer	3½	1	Tradesman.
Tradesman	1½	1	Tradesman.
Instrument maker	3½	1	Civil Service (Insurance Office).
Tramway conductor	3½	1	Tradesman.
Mason	3½	1	Tradesman.
Tramway conductor	3½	1	Tradesman.
Joiner	3½	1	Civil Service.
Hatter	3½	1	To an "Oberrealschule."
Post Office van conductor	3½	1	Post Office clerk.
Tanner	4	1½	Post Office clerk.
Master bootmaker	4	1	Post Office clerk.
Publican	4	1	Tradesman.
Clerk	4	1	Marine engineer.
Tradesman	3½	1½	Railway clerk.
Engine-fitter	4	1	Teacher.
Post Office official	4	1	Post Office clerk.
Upper telegraph clerk	2	1	Civil Service.
Cigar manufacturer	4	1	Tradesman.
Independent means	3½	1	Civil Service.
Independent means	4	1	Bank clerk.
Tradesman	4	1	Tradesman.
Master bootmaker	4	1	Post Office clerk.

Father's Occupation.	Length of Time		Occupation chosen by the Pupil.
	In the School.	In the 1st Class.	
	Years.	Years.	
Master bootmaker - -	4	1	Post Office clerk.
Tradesman - - -	4	1	Surveyor.
Watchman - - -	4	1	Post Office clerk.
Railway official - - -	4	1	To an "Oberrealschule."
Policeman - - -	4	1	Bank clerk.
Postman - - - -	4	1	Post Office clerk.
Municipal Service - -	4	1	Civil Service.
Master joiner - - -	4	1	Post Office clerk.

VII.—Specimen of the Lehrplan of the Berlin Realschulen.*

Realschule VII.

Lehrplan.

Class I.

Religious Instruction (2 hours a week). — The Bible, Luther's Catechism, the Provincial Hymn Book. Schulz-Klix: Bible Reading Book. Scripture history: Supplementary reading to those portions of the Bible read in the second and third classes, in particular the Gospels. The Acts of the Apostles. Selection from the Sunday Epistles. Hymns: Repetition of texts, hymns, and Psalms previously learnt. Church history: Some of the chief dates of church history. Dogmatic teaching. Distinctions of creeds, dogma, and morality.

German (3 hours a week).—Hopf and Paulsiek: German reading book for higher schools, 2nd part, section 1. Orthography: Rules and lists of words. Literature: The reading, study, and analysis of some plays of Schiller and Lessing. Continued reading of epic poems.

Summer 1895 (Easter Division).—Die Jungfrau von Orleans.
„ (Michaelmas Division.)—Maria Stuart. Revision of Hermann und Dorothea.

Winter 1895–96 (Easter Division).—Egmont.
„ (Michaelmas Division).—Die Jungfrau von Orleans. Instruction on metrical and poetical form in connexion with the literature.

Written work.—Every four weeks an essay, augmentative in character (subjects in connexion with the literature-reading, reports, explanation of natural phenomena; a discussion of easier maxims). Practical introduction to composition through arrangement of materials and outlines of essays.

* Translated by Mr. A. E. Twentyman.

Poetry: The learning by heart of poems and passages of the books read. Ilmenau; Epilog zu Schiller's Glocke; repetition of pieces previously learnt.

Oral work: Practice in giving short lectures.

History of literature: sketch of the golden age of German poetry in the 18th century.

Subjects for essays (Easter Division). 1. Of what use are stones? 2. The action in Act I. of the "Jungfrau von Orleans." 3. The first division of Poland. 4. Why do we celebrate the battle of Sedan? 5. How was it that Johanna could not resist earthly love? 6. Why do people so often talk of the weather? 7. The activity in times of peace of the Great Elector. 8. The progress of the action in Goethe's Egmont. 9. Man the mightiest among the mighty.

(Michaelmas Division.) 1. What circumstances contributed to the victory of the Protestants in the Thirty Years' War? 2. Arnold Melchthel's share in the liberation of Switzerland. 3. What gratitude do we owe to our native country? 4. By what means does Schiller in his "Wilhelm Tell" seek to justify his hero's act? 5. The blessings and evils of riches. 6. The previous history in Schiller's "Jungfrau von Orleans." 7. The results for Frederick the Great of the first two years of the Seven Years' War. 8. The formation of islands. 9. Guilt and penance of the heroine in Schiller's "Jungfrau von Orleans." 10. What advantages are to be derived from a sensible walking tour?

Examination essays, Michaelmas 1895.—What circumstances contributed to the victories of the allies in the Napoleonic wars?

Easter 1896.—Hermann (a portrait after Goethe's Herman und Dorothea).

French (6 hours a week).—Ulbrich: French Grammar and Exercise Book. Grammar: Syntax of the article, substantive, pronoun, adjective, and adverb; the most important prepositions; revision of accidence and syntax. Practice in the use of the regular conjugations in whole sentences.

Reading (Easter Division). Summer—*Coppée:* Selected Tales. *Leitzitz:* Paris et ses environs. Winter—*Sandeau:* Mde. de la Seiglière; and *Leitzitz:* Paris.

(Michaelmas Division). Summer — *Sandeau:* Mde. de la Seiglière. Winter—*Passy:* Le petit poucet.

Exercises in pronunciation, in recapitulation of, and transforming the reading material. Synonyms, metres, questions of style in relation to the reading. Formation of words. Written and oral exercises in connexion with Ulbrich's exercise book. Composition of letters; short essays in connexion with the reading material in the form of reproduction.

English (6 hours a week).—Dubislav and Boek: English Grammar. Grammar: revision and completion of the syntax of the verb; tenses and the chief use of the conjunctive; syntax of the article, substantive, adjective, adverb, and pronoun; the

more important prepositions, "about, after, at, by, from, to, with;" the chief conjunctions arranged according to kinds of sentences. Reading material (Easter Division). Summer—*Marry:* In the Struggle of Life. Winter.—*Washington Irving:* Sketch Book. (Michaelmas Division). Summer.—*Dickens:* Sketches by Boz; and *Robertson:* Society a Comedy. Winter.—*Bulwer:* Lady of Lyons.

Exercises in pronunciation, re-translation, reproduction of content.

History (2 hours a week).—Andrä: Outlines of Universal History for Higher Schools. A. G. Meyer: History Tables, 2nd part. German and Prussian history from the accession of Frederick the Great to the present time. Foreign history as far as it enters into relation with the other (Frederick the Great, French Revolution, Napoleon I., decline and rise of Prussia, Napoleonic wars, reconstitution of political relations in Germany in 1815, commercial union, the political movements in Germany up to 1866, Emperor William I., the foundation of the new Empire, social and industrial development in the 19th century).

Geography (1 hour a week).—Daniel: Text Book of Geography. Revision of the geography of Europe. Map drawing.

Geometry (3 hours a week).—Mehler: Elementary Mathematics. Revision of plane geometry and trigonometry. Solution of triangles. The most important propositions of solid geometry. The simplest solid bodies and calculation of their dimensions (lineal and superficial) and contents.

Arithmetic and Algebra (2 hours a week).—Mehler: Elementary Mathematics. Bardey: Collection of examples. August: Logarithmic and trigonometrical tables. Continuation of quadratic equations. The summation of simple series. Compound interest. Every four weeks a home exercise of four problems in arithmetic and geometry.

Examination Questions.—Michaelmas, 1895.

1. In a sphere with the radius v determine the height of a cone which is n times as large as its base.

2. Solve the triangle given $a = 40$ cm., $\alpha = 77° 15' 4''$, $h_b + h_c = 60$ cm.

3. If you save a certain sum every year for 10 years and put it by at $4\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. compound interest, for how many years afterwards can you receive a similar sum in yearly income?

Easter, 1896.

1. Find the length of the side of the base of a regular pyramid with a square base, when the height is 3 m. and the surface 44·844 sq. m.

2. Find the first four terms of two series, one arithmetical and one geometrical. The first term of each series is two; the

second term of the geometrical series is three times as great as the second term of the arithmetical. The sum of the two third terms is 172.

3. Construct and solve a right-angled triangle when 28 = 30 cm., and the radius of the inscribed circle = 2 cm.

Physics (2 hours a week).—Jochmann: Text-book of Experimental Physics. Mechanics and hydrostatics. Mathematical geography.

Chemistry and Mineralogy (2 hours a week).—Outlines of inorganic chemistry. Elements of crystallography. Elements of organic chemistry.

Drawing (3 hours a week).—Freehand (1 hour). Drawing from a cast of ornament (ornamental plaster models) with light and shade effects. Representation of natural and artificial objects.

Geometrical Drawing (2 hours) (optional). — Sciography. Perspective.

Class II.

Religious Instruction (2 hours a week).—The Bible, Luther's Catechism, the Provincial Hymn Book. Schulz-Klix Bible Reading Book. Scripture history. The Kingdom of God in the New Testament. The Gospel of St. Matthew: Life and teaching of Jesus (with the use of the other Gospels for the history of the Passion). The Sermon on the Mount. Parables. The Sunday Gospels. Revision of the Catechism and the Bible texts that go with it, with explanation of its internal arrangements of matter. Hymns: Revision of those hymns and Psalms already learnt: new ones to be learnt, Psalms 90 and 103; out of the Provincial Hymn Book, 492 and 429. Church history. History of the Reformation in connexion with the life of Luther.

German (3 hours a week).—Hopf and Paulsiek: German Reading Book for Higher Schools, 2nd part, section 1. Orthography: rules and lists of words. Literature: reading, study, and reproduction of prose and poetical reading pieces (historical, geographical, from natural science; Epic: Homer's Odyssey in the selection by Hubatsch, the Iliad by H. F. Kern; Goethe's Hermann und Dorothea; lyric poetry, particularly "Die Glocke"). Instruction in versification, poetic art, and rhetoric. Every four weeks an essay (narratives, descriptions, translations, accounts of personal experiences, letters, proverbs). Poems: the learning and recital of poems and passages from the reading material. Die Glocke: Lützows Wilde Jagd, Das Eleusische Fest. Short lectures in prose. History of Literature.

French (6 hours a week).—Ulbrich's French Grammar. Ulbrich's French Exercise Book. Grammar (3 hours a week).—Order of words; government of verbs, use of tenses, conjunctive mood, infinitive and participle. Exercises in continuous French prose from Ulbrich's Exercise Book. Revision of accidence.

Practice in the use of the regular conjugations in whole sentences.

Reading material (Easter Division). Summer.—*D'hombres et Monod:* Biographies historiques. Winter.—Selected tales from Toepffer, Bourier, Dumas, Mérimée, Souvestre. (Michaelmas Division). Summer.—*Daudet:* Tartarin de Taraxon. Winter.—*Erckman-Chatrian:* Histoire d'un Conscrit de 1813. Exercises in pronunciation in connexion with the reading. Reproduction in French of what has been read, and the repetition of a story told in class. The learning by heart of pieces of prose and poetry. The most important facts with reference to style and metre. Constant reference to the formation of words.

English (6 hours a week).—Dubislav and Boek: English primer. Grammar. The accidence (but attention to be paid to the more important rules of syntax in connexion with the reading book). Systematic arrangement of the grammatical forms with the help of the text-book. Accidence of the article, substantive, auxiliary verbs, the periphrastic use of "to do"; the pronouns, interrogative, personal, possessive, demonstrative; the gender of substantives, the numerals, the formative of the passive, the relative pronouns, the ordinals, the reflexive pronouns, adverbs, comparison, defective auxiliary verbs, irregular plurals, the chief irregular verbs. Order of words. Repetitions. Exercise in the use of verbs in whole sentences.

History.—Andrä: Outlines of Universal History for higher schools. A. G. Meyer: Historical Tables, 2nd part. German history, from the beginning of modern history to the accession of Frederick the Great. History of Brandenburg, Prussia, from the beginning to the accession of Frederick the Great.

Foreign history as far as it is related to German or Prussian history.

Geography (1 hour a week).—Daniel: Text-book of Geography. Revision of the physical geography of Germany. The German colonies. Map drawing.

Geometry (3 hours a week).—Mehler: Elementary Mathematics. Revision of the conditions of similarity in figures. Measurement of figures. Measurement of circumference and area of circles. Elementary plane trigonometry.

Arithmetic and Algebra (2 hours a week).—Mehler: Elementary Mathematics. Bardey: Collection of examples. August: Logarithmic and trigonometrical tables. Powers, roots, logarithms; equations of the first degree with several unknowns. Quadratic equations with one unknown.

Natural History and Botany (2 hours a week).—Lackowitz: The Flora of Berlin. Vogel-Müllendorf: Botany, Part III. Short description of kryptogams. Revision and formulation of a classification of plants. Outlines of the anatomy and physiology of plants.

Vogel-Müllenhoff: Zoology, Part III. Revision and formulation of a classification of animals. Geographical distribution of animals. Human anatomy with instruction in hygiene.

Physics (2 hours a week)—Jochmann: Text-book of Experimental Physics. Optics. Heat. Outlines of meteorology. Acoustics.

Drawing (3 hours a week).—Freehand (1 hour): Drawing from an ornamental plaster model, with light and shade effects. Representation of natural objects in outline. Representation of different rotatory bodies, with light and shade effects.

Geometrical drawing (2 hours a week) (optional): Straight-lined geometrical patterns. Plan and elevation of certain models. Development of the surfaces of solids. Projection (point, line, plane). Discovery of the vanishing point and vanishing line. Determination of the real size of a plane figure. Construction of both projections of a given figure.

Class III.

Religious Instruction (2 hours a week).—The Bible, Luther's Catechism, the Provincial Hymn Book. Scripture history. The Kingdom of God in the Old Testament. Portions of the historical books of the Old Testament; selected Psalms and portions of "Job." Outline of the history of the Jewish people; geography of Palestine.

Catechism: Repetition of the chief portions of the catechism and the Bible texts learnt with it. Revision of hymns and Psalms previously learnt; in addition, Psalms 19 and 130. Provincial Hymn Book, 19, 70, 286, 11.

Church history: The Church year and its importance for the services of the Church.

German (4 hours a week).—Hopf and Paulsiek: German Reading Book for Higher Schools, Part II., Section 1. Rules and lists of words for German orthography in Prussian schools. Grammar: Methodical study of the chief grammatical rules peculiar to German. Revision (as occasion arises) when essays are returned.

Reading, interpretation, and reproduction of prose and poetical pieces (Teutonic myths; historical, geographical, and natural history extracts; epic poetry; Schiller's and Uhland's ballads). Written work: Every four weeks an essay (narrative, descriptions, translations). Correction of essays. Poetry: Repetition of pieces out of the reading book (Das Glück von Edenhall; Die Kraniche von Ibycus, Der Graf von Habsburg; Das Siegesfest, Frühlingsgruss an das Vaterland).

French (8 hours a week).—Ulbrich: French Primer. Wingerath: Choix de Lectures françaises. Grammar: Conjugation of verbs ending in "er" with changing stem, the regular verbs ending in "re," and irregular verbs. Arrangement of words in families. Use of *avoir* and *être* with intransitive and reflexive verbs. The conjunctions in the order of their importance.

Systematic practice in the use of inflections. Exercises in pronunciation. Reading of such extracts as have material connexion with the other branches of instruction, or which give information about France. In the winter the Easter division read *Lamé-Fleury:* Histoire de la Découverte de L'Amérique.

History (2 hours a week).—Andrä: Outlines of Universal History for Higher Schools. A. G. Meyer: Historical Tables. A short sketch of the history of the Western Empire from the death of Augustus to 476. The creation of new states in the beginning of the Middle Ages. History of the Franks. German history till the close of the Middle Ages. The chief events of universal importance out of the history of the neighbouring nations.

Geography (2 hours a week).—Daniel: Text-book of Geography. An atlas. Revision of the political geography of Germany. Physical and political geography of the countries outside Europe, excluding the German colonies. Map drawing.

Geometry (3 hours a week).—Mehler: Elementary Mathematics. Equality of rectilineal figures. Proportionality of straight lines. Similar figures. Comparison and measurement of rectilineal figures. Measurement of the circumference and area of a circle. Every fortnight a simple problem (analysis, construction, proof).

Arithmetic and Algebra (3 hours a week).—Mehler: Elementary Mathematics. Bardey Collection of Examples. The first four rules with algebraical symbols. Proportion. Equations of the first degree with one unknown. Application of equations to calculations of everyday life.

Natural History and Botany (2 hours a week).—Botany: Lackowitz: The Flora of Berlin. Description of the more difficult families of Angiosperms and chief Gymnosperms, in order to formulate the natural classification of Phanerogams. Foreign cultivated plants. Vogel-Müllenhoff, Part II., 4. Lower animals (mollusca, worms, protozoa), for a classification of invertebrate animals.

Physics (2 hours a week).—Jochmann: Text-book of Practical Physics. Magnetism, electricity, galvanism. Short exposition of the subject-matter and aims of physics.

Drawing.—Drawing of wooden bodies. Simple vessels and implements. Representation in outline of casts of ornament of simple geometrical casts, with light and shade. Outline of most advanced casts of ornament.

Class IV.

Religious Instruction (2 hours a week).—The Bible; Luther's Catechism; Provincial Hymn Book. Schulz-Klix: Bible Reading Book.

Scripture history: Portions of the Old and New Testament.

Bible knowledge: Divisions of the Bible. Order of books of the Bible. Practice in the finding of texts.

Catechism: Revision of Parts I. and II., with Luther's explanations. Part III., with the accompanying texts. Parts IV. and V.

Hymns: Psalms 1 and 23. Provincial Hymn Book, 476, 440, 87, 565.

German (4 hours a week).—Hopf and Paulsiek: German Reading Book for Higher Schools, Part I., Section 3. Rules and lists of words.

Grammar: Revision and completion of syntax of sentences and rules for punctuation. Compound sentences. Formation of words.

Orthography: Rules and lists of words.

Written work, every fortnight: Dictation or a short essay (reproduction of what has been read or heard in class). Correction of the same, and grammatical instruction and practice. (From IV. to I. short compositions on the matter of the instruction in German, French, history, geography, nature knowledge.) Reading, explanation, and reproduction of poems and prose pieces out of the reading book.

Learning by heart and recital of some of the poems (Das Grab in Busento; Auf Scharnhorsts Tod; Erlkönig; Andreas Hofer; Deutschland, Deutschland über Alles; Lied eines schwäbischen Ritters).

French (8 hours a week).—Ulbrich: French Primer. Wingerath: Choix des Lectures françaises. Practice of pronunciation in connexion with the pieces read and learnt. Grammar: *Avoir* and *être;* the regular conjunctions (ending in "er" and "ir"). Article, substantive, adjective, pronoun, numerals, with the chief rules of syntax. Systematic practice in conjugations and declensions.

History (2 hours a week).—Andrä: Outlines of Universal History for Higher Schools. A. G. Meyer: History Tables. The chief facts in the history of the civilised nations of the East. Greek history from Draco to the death of Alexander the Great. The states and civilisation of the Alexandrine Age. Roman history from Pyrrhus to the death of Augustus.

Geography (2 hours a week).—Daniel: Text-book of Geography. School atlas. Physical and political geography of Europe (excluding Germany)—in particular the countries of the Mediterranean. Map drawing.

Arithmetic (3 hours a week).—Günther and Böhm's Collection of Examples. The arithmetical operations of everyday life—in particular per-centage and interest. The beginnings of calculating with symbolic numbers (letters). Written work once a fortnight.

Geometry (3 hours a week).—Mehler: The chief Propositions of Elementary Mathematics. The properties of lines, angles, rectilineal figures, and the circle. Simple geometrical construction (analysis, construction, proof). Written work every fortnight.

Natural History and Botany (2 hours a week).—Lackowitz: The Flora of Berlin. Vogel-Müllenhoff: Botany, Part II. Comparative description of related genera and species of flowering plants from actual examples. Properties of simple plants from the group of Angiosperms on the basis of native cultivated plants, poisonous and medical plants. Vital phenomena of plants. Zoology, Vogel-Müllenhoff's, Part II., Section 3. Revision and extension of the instruction of V. and VI. by the classification of vertebrate animals. Articulated animals.

Drawing (2 hours a week).—Formations with rows and groups. Drawing of more difficult natural leaves. Drawing of Stuhlmann's wooden bodies in perspective.

Class V.

Religious Instruction (2 hours a week).—Fürbinger-Bertram: Bible Stories. Section for upper classes. Luther's Catechism. Provincial Hymn Book. Scripture history. Bible history of the New Testament. Catechism. Repetition of the I. and III. Parts without Luther's explanation, the second part with the explanations. Hymns. Provincial Hymn Book, Nos. 158, 9, 214, 543.

German (6 hours a week).—Hopf and Paulsiek: German Reading Book for Higher Schools, Part I., Section 2. Grammar: Revision and completion of accidence and syntax of the simple sentence. The most necessary portions of the syntax of the compound sentence (combination of sentences, construction of sentences; the various kinds of dependent sentences, discriminated according to the different parts of the simple sentence for which they stand). Punctuation. Orthography: Practice in spelling in the weekly dictations given in class. Rules and lists of words. First attempts at a written reproduction of a story in class. Poetry. Repetition and recital of certain poems of the reading books (Das Riesenspielzeug; Der reichste Fürst; Abendlied von M. Claudius; Morgenlied von Schiller; Die Trompete von Vionville; Reiter's Morgenlied).

History (1 hour a week).—A. G. Meyer: Historical Tables, Part I. Early mythical history of Greece and Rome (Argonauts, Theseus; Trojan War; Doric immigration; Lycurgus; early Roman Kings; Gallic wars, Samnite wars).

Geography (3 hours a week).—Daniel: Text-book of Geography. Physical and political geography of Germany. Further instruction for the comprehension of the means of geographical representation. The beginnings of drawing simple outline maps on the blackboard.

Arithmetic (3 hours a week).—Günther and Böhm: Collection of Examples. Arithmetic book for higher schools. Fractions. Divisibility of numbers. Rule of three. Revision and completion of decimals. Revision of the German weights and measures. Written work every week.

Elementary Geometry.—Revision of the work of Class VI. Further practice with compasses and ruler. Development of geometrical ideas from observation and movement. Fundamental problems. Lines in and at the circle (chords, secant, tangents). Tetrahedrons, pyramid, sphere. Written work every fortnight.

Natural History and Botany.—Vogel-Müllenhoff: Botany, Part I. More complete development of the fundamental notions of the morphology of flowering plants. Practice in determining the characteristics of the various species by comparison of plants either actually before them or described at the same time. Vogel-Müllenhoff: Zoology, Part I., Section 2. Survey of the five classes of vertebrate animals (from actual examples of pictures) together with information as to habits of life. Comparative observation of their skeletons. Outline of the human skeleton.

Drawing.—The regular pentagon, rosettes, ellipse, oval, shield shape. Leaves of symmetrical shape. Chalice shape. Palmettes, spirals, volute.

Writing (3 hours a week).—Practice in German and Latin characters in words and sentences. Practice in the Greek alphabet. Home-work once a week.

Class VI.

Religious Instruction.—Fürbinger-Bertram: Bible Stories. Division for upper classes. Luther's Catechism. The Provincial Hymn Book. Scripture history. Stories from the Old Testament. Before the chief Church festivals (Christmas, Easter, Whitsuntide) the corresponding stories of the New Testament. Catechism. Division I., with Luther's explanations, II. and III. without the explanations, with simple explanation of hard words. Hymns. Provincial Hymn Book, Nos. 76, 132, 202, 22.

German (6 hours a week).—Meyer and Nagel: German Reading Book for Class VI. Rules and lists of words.

Grammar: Parts of speech and parts of the simple sentence with their Latin names. Strong and weak declension of substantives, adjectives, pronouns, and verbs. Orthography. Spelling exercises in the weekly dictations. The chief rules for orthography. Practice in correct and fluent reading of prose and easier poetical pieces (fairy tales, fables, &c.). Explanation of the reading and reproduction by the pupils. Learning by heart and recital of some of the easier poems of the reading book. (Der gute Kamerad, Siegfriedschwerb, Schwäbische Kunde, Friedrich Barbarossa, Heinrich der Vogelsteller, die Wacht am Rhein.)

Patriotic History.—Tales from the history and myths of their native country. Weekly home work (repetition, correction of dictation, grammatical exercises).

History (1 hour a week).—Biographies out of the history of their native country from Charlemagne to Emperor William I.

(Charlemagne, Henry I., Otto I., Frederick I., Rudolph von Habsburg, Frederick I. of Hohenzollern, Luther, Gustavus Adolphus, the Great Elector, Frederick Wilhelm I., Frederick II., Frederick William III., William I.).

Geography (2 hours a week).—An atlas. Elementary notions of mathematical and physical geography in connexion with a knowledge of school surroundings. First instruction in the understanding of relief, the globe, and the map. Summary of the continents and seas. Picture of immediate neighbourhood.

Arithmetic (4 hours a week).—Günther and Böhm: Collection of Examples. Arithmetic book for Higher Schools. The first four rules, with concrete and abstract whole numbers. German weights and measures. Practice in writing decimals, and simple decimal calculations. Written work once a week.

Elementary Geometry (1 hour a week).—The simplest constructions with compasses and ruler. Development of simplest geometrical notions through observation, starting from the die. Measuring and drawing of a straight line; measurement of length. Drawing of surface measurements; measurement of fixed surfaces. Cubic measures and connexion of size and weight. Angle. Construction of a simple triangle.

Natural History and Botany.—Vogel-Müllenhoff: Botany, Part I. Explanation of the simplest morphological notions about flowering plants. Practice in the simplest schematic drawing of what they have observed. Zoology, Vogel-Müllenhoff, Part I., Section I. Information about the chief mammals and birds and their manner of living. Practice in schematic drawing of simple parts of the body.

Drawing (2 hours a week).—A square standing on its side. A square standing on a corner. A regular octagon. An equilateral triangle. A regular hexagon. The circle. Rosette-shaped forms.

Writing (3 hours a week).—German and Latin alphabets in regular order after the pattern of the teacher. Writing of music. Home work once a week.

List of Essays written in connexion with the Instruction in German.

Class I.—Easter Division.

(1.) James II., King of England. (2.) The character of the inhabitants of Paris. (3.) The laws of gravity. (4.) The miracles in Schiller's Jungfrau von Orleans. (5.) The causes of the great French Revolution. (6.) The Constitution under the Directory. (7.) The Paris boulevards. (8.) The crystallisation of sulphur. (9.) The conflict between Lessing and Voltaire.

Class I.—Michaelmas Division.

(1.) The introductory history to the comedy Mlle. de la Seglière. (2.) Early years of Charles Dickens. (3.) The manu-

facture of sulphuric acid. (4.) The first division of Poland. (5.) Difference between fluids and solids. (6.) The Bois de Boulogne. (7.) Kipp's apparatus and its use. (8.) The kingdom of Poland about 1750.

Class II.—Easter Division.

(1.) On assimilation. (2.) A Wonderful Rescue (translation). (3.) How is a photograph made? (4.) Reform of the empire under Maximilian I. (5.) The first 10 years of the reign of Francis I. (6.) "Die Elemente hassen des Gebild der Menschenhand." (7.) The action of the first book of the Iliad. (8.) On the behaviour of water when heated. (9.) The family compact of Gera. (10.) Translation of an extract from "Le lac de Gers," by Toepffer.

Class II.—Michaelmas Division.

(1.) The beginnings of the Reformation in France. (2.) The early history of the Hohenzollern up to 1411. (3.) The Story of Lord Douglas. (4.) The ordinary thermometer. (5.) What preparations for bell-founding are mentioned in Schiller's Glocke? (6.) The course of development of the Trichina. (7.) Translation from Erckmann-Chatrian's Histoire d'un Conscrit. (8.) Schiller at the Karlsschule. (9.) The use of bad conductors of heat. (10.) The rising of the Knights of the Empire under Sickingen.

Class III.—(Easter Division 1).

(1.) How Goethe came to write the "Erlkönig." (2.) Cæsar and Ariovistus. (3.) Siberia. (4.) Orpheus. (5.) The structure of the maize-blossom. (6.) The different kinds of electrical discharge. (7.) A mediæval castle. (8.) The administration of Charles the Great. (9.) The snail's shell. (10.) Pippin the Short.

Class III.—(Easter Division 2).

(1.) The origin of the Cimbri and Teutones. (2.) On the formation of seeds by the pine and the alder. (3.) The Tableland of Central Asia. (4.) The electroscope. (5.) A war stratagem of Hannibal. (6.) The Vandals.

Class III.—(Michaelmas Division).

(1.) The structure of the common spider. (2.) The Great Armada. (3.) The West Goths in Italy. (4.) The kingdom of Saxony. (5.) Bunsen's Element. (6.) Metrical analysis of a poem. (7.) Metrical analysis of Schiller's Graf von Habsburg.

(8.) Turan. (9.) The lightning conductor. (10.) The absorption of nourishment by the Molluscæ.

Class IV.—(Easter Division).

(1.) The Mediterranean sea. (2.) Xenophon. (3.) The death of Drusus Germanicus. (4.) The Battle of Salamis. (5.) On heather. (6.) Frederick II's. snuff-box. (7.) The slave war.

Class IV.—(Michaelmas Division).

(1.) Alexander's expedition to India. (2.) Work and pray (Ulbrich, Ch. 18). (3.) Pioneer Klinke. (4.) The rivers and lakes of Scandinavia. (5.) The inflorescence of Compositæ. (6.) The lion and the fox (Ulbrich, Ch. 3). (7.) The inland seas. (8.) Bertha, the sister of Charles the Great. (9.) The battle of Marathon.

VIII.—Summary of the Privileges attaching to the various Types of Higher Schools in Prussia.

(i.) *Privileges attaching to the Realschule.*

The passing of the examination at the close of the sixth school year confers the following privileges on the pupils of the Realschule:—

(i.) The right to study agriculture at a Royal Agricultural High School.
(ii.) The right to attend the Academic High School of Art.
(iii.) „ „ „ „ of Music.
(iv.) Admission to the examination for "drawing masters," at higher schools.
(v.) The right to become a chemist's assistant with subsequent admission to the pharmaceutical examinations but only after showing (by examination at a gymnasium or a realgymnasium) proficiency in Latin up to the standard of the obersekunda.
(vi.) Admission to the lower ranks of the civil administration of the State railways.
(vii.) Admission to the lower ranks of the Civil Service in provincial governments and local administration.
(viii.) Admission to the lower ranks of the civil administration of royal mines, ironworks, saltworks.
(ix.) Admission to clerkship in the Imperial Bank.
(x.) Admission to lower clerkships in the Courts of Justice.
(xi.) Admission to the second class of an intermediate technical school.
(xii.) Attendance at the higher course of the Royal Horticultural Institute at Potsdam; but only when proficiency in Latin up to the standard of the third class can be proved.

(xiii.) Admission to one year's voluntary service in the army or navy.
(xiv.) Admission to training as paymaster in the army.
(xv.) Admission to the "surveyor's examination," after proof of one year's satisfactory attendance at a recognised intermediate technical school.
(xvi.) Admission to the study of mine-surveying on the same conditions as in (xv.).
(xvii.) Admission to lower clerkships in the Inland Revenue office (indirect taxation) if holding the leaving certificate of an intermediate technical school with a two years' course.

The Realschule admits its pupils to the following callings and professions:—

Tradesman.
Commercial pursuits.
Industrial pursuits.
Farming.
Horticulture (professional training at the Royal Institute).
Chemist (after examination in Latin).
Bank clerk.
Lower clerkships in the Civil Service.

The following offices are specifically mentioned:—

Provincial Governments (central office).
Local administration.
Courts of Justice.
Inland Revenue (indirect taxation).
Civil administration of mines.
" " railways.
" " ironworks.
" " saltworks.
Land surveyor.
Mine surveyor.
Paymaster in the Army.
Intermediate technical schools.
Trade schools.
Industrial art worker.
Manufacturer.
Drawing master in higher schools.
Musician. } (Professional training at the High School.)
Artist. }

(ii.) *The Oberrealschule.*

The Oberrealschule admits its pupils to all the above callings and professions and in addition:—

Clerkships in the following Government offices:—
Admiralty.
Dockyard Administration.
Inland Revenue (Land and House Tax).
Survey Department.

Post Office (Higher Appointments).
Telegraph Service (Higher Appointments).
" " (Inspectors).
Engineering:—
Civil.
Constructive.
Machine.
Mining.
Shipbuilding.
Forestry (professional training at the "School of Forestry").
Those professions for which preparation is given at the Technical High Schools.
Veterinary Surgeon (subsequent examination in Latin).
" " in the Army (subsequent examination in Latin).
Teacher in Higher Schools.
The right to study Mathematics.
" " Natural Science at the University.

(iii.) *The Real-Gymnasium.*

The Real-Gymnasium admits to all the foregoing callings and professions, and in addition:—
Higher Military and Naval Service.
To the University for the study of Modern Languages.

(iv.) *The Gymnasium.*

The Gymnasium, in addition to the above, admits its pupils—
To the University for the study of—
Philosophy.
History.
Classical Philology.
Law.
Theology.
Economic Science.
Medicine.
To the Medical Surgical Academy at Berlin.

NOTE.—A pupil, on the completion of his course at an Oberrealschule, can obtain the privileges attaching (*a*) to a Real-gymnasium, if he passes a further examination in Latin at a Real-gymnasium; and (*b*) to a Gymnasium, if he passes a further examination in Latin and Greek. Similarly a pupil, on completing his course at a Real-gymnasium, can obtain the privileges attaching to a Gymnasium by passing a further examination in Latin and Greek at a Gymnasium. *Cp.* "Statistisches Jahrbuch der Höheren Schulen," II. Abteilung. 1896–97. pp. 1036, *seq.*

M. E. S.

The Oberrealschulen of Prussia, with special reference to the Oberrealschule at Charlottenburg.

I.

In the charming book in which Dr. Wiese has recorded the memories of his official life, that honoured veteran of the educational world allows us to trace the gradual rise of modern, as distinguished from classical, secondary education in Prussia, and even to watch the growth, in his own mind, of the conviction that generous freedom should be granted for the development of varied types of secondary schools.* It would be hard to name another work which gives so intimate, and yet so discreet, a picture of the experience of a great Prussian civil servant, or one which impresses the foreign reader with greater respect for the intellectual thoroughness and administrative skill of German government. The English book, with which in the sphere of education it might perhaps be most fitly compared, is the *Four Periods of Education as reviewed in* 1832, 1839, 1846, *and* 1862 by Sir J. Kay Shuttleworth, to whom our national system of primary education will always lie under a heavy debt of obligation. For, apart from the facts that Dr. Wiese's volumes are more strictly autobiographical than is Sir J. Kay Shuttleworth's, and that the two men were mainly occupied during their official life with different grades of public education, both of them evince at every point their profound enthusiasm for their work, and each, at a critical period in his life, was deeply influenced by studying the educational system of the other's country.

Some of the gravest questions in modern education turn upon what is taught in the secondary schools. National education cannot be divided up into separate compartments as if the welfare of one grade of it had nothing to do with the well-being of the rest. Each layer of schools has indeed its own special use and difficulties, but is necessarily connected with that above and below it. And on the just balance of its different parts depends the usefulness as well as the safety of the whole fabric. In the history of English education during the last 100 years, we see that influence has passed from the universities to the secondary schools, from both alike into the primary, and from the primary back to the secondary schools, and so upwards to the universities again. The whole system is one body, and the same life animates the whole. As M. Albert Dumont, who was one of the brilliant leaders of the movement now revolutionising the spirit as well as the forms of French education, was never weary of repeating, "Nous devons travailler de toutes nos forces à cette "étroite solidarité de toutes les formes de l'instruction. Des

* *Lebenserinnerungen und Amtserfahrungen* von Dr. L. Wiese. 2 vols. Berlin. Wiegandt und Grieben. 1886.

" études secondaires mal faites donnent aux Facultés des audi-
" teurs mal préparés ; des Facultés languissantes rendent difficile
" le recrutement de l'enseignement secondaire. Les Facultés,
" les lycées, les collèges préparent, éprouvent les réformes qui
" améliorent peu à peu l'enseignement primaire, qui en modifient
" les méthodes et en élèvent le niveau. L'enseignement primaire,
" de son côté, apprend à tous ce qu'est l'instruction, pourquoi il
" faut l'estimer, comment elle mérite les sacrifices que les contri-
" buables font pour elle. Plus l'école se remplit, plus la
" Faculté et le collège ont d'élèves."* It is essential to the intellectual and moral influence of the primary school that there should filter into it through the culture of its teachers the best thought and spirit of the time. " Une nation peut avoir des
" écoles primaires florissantes et n'en tirer que des avantages
" médiocres. Ce qui importe, c'est cette vigueur d'esprit, ce bon
" sens dans les choses intellectuelles, cette hauteur de vue
" que la science seule peut donner."† And both primary and secondary education alike depend on the universities and the other centres of intellectual life for the ideas which can animate their course of studies and methods of instruction. " C'est qu'en
" effet si l'enseignement primaire est indispensable à tous, si
" l'enseignement secondaire doit être offert à tout élève de l'école
" primaire qui peut le recevoir utilement, l'un et l'autre risqueraient
" de s'arrêter ou de s'affaiblir s'ils ne recevaient de l'enseignement
" supérieur des principes toujours nouveaux d'activité et de vie :
" ils sont la conséquence de l'enseignement supérieur ; ils lui
" fournissent des recrues, ils lui empruntent des maîtres."‡

In Germany, as elsewhere, the two opposing currents in modern education have naturally met in the secondary school. It is there, in the first instance, that the new ideas as to what it is expedient to teach come into sharp conflict with the older tradition. In German education the classical studies were in possession of the ground. Their record was illustrious ; no one disputed the immense service which they had rendered to the life and literature of the nation. But the progress of science, the extension of industry, the ever-widening sphere of commerce, gave rise to new demands on the part of other studies. New conditions had inevitably produced new needs which the older subjects of instruction could not alone satisfy. It had become necessary for youths who would excel in trade and the allied professions of modern life to seek a higher education than was necessary in earlier times ; and this education had perforce to be more directly adapted to their needs, and more closely connected with the normal conditions of their future career than was the classical curriculum of the older type of secondary schools.

Hence arose bitter controversy and recrimination between the more reckless champions of either side. On the one hand, the advocates of the modern studies were often philistine in

* Albert Dumont, *Notes et Discours*, 1873–84, p. 100. Paris. Armand Colin.
† *Ibid.*, p. 85.
‡ *Ibid.*, pp. 140–1.

their demands. They called for something immediately practical and ignorantly decried the value of the established tradition in secondary education. On the other hand, the more violent champions of the classical studies were hardly less one-sided and narrow in their view. Out of touch with the industrial and commercial world, living in a sphere of their own and under the special influences of professorial opinion, they were apt to denounce, rather than to attempt to understand, opinions and a point of view so diverse from those to whom they had themselves become accustomed by unbroken use. "Der Gesichtskreis " besonders der ausschliesslich philologisch gebildeten Lehrer, " bei denen die Continuität der Beschäftigung mit den alten " Sprachen vom Gymnasium her, durch die Universität hin " und von da wieder im Gymnasium, am wenigsten durch " andere Studien und freiere Lebensbeobachtungen unterbrochen " wird, erweitert sich selten bis dahin. Man war, wie es so oft " geschieht, stark in der Negation, arm an positiven Vorschlägen " und unklar über deren Ausführbarkeit und praktische " Consequenzen."*

Between these two angry parties Dr. Wiese stood as a mediating and reconciling figure. He was not indeed in any sense the originator of a new type of school. Not to speak of the writings of Locke and Francke, Rousseau and Resewitz, Herbart and Schleiermacher, it was Spilleke, the director of the schools then connected with the Dreifaltigkeitskirche in Berlin, who in 1822 had proved the need of a new form of secondary education by his essay—epoch making, as Dr. Wiese calls it—"On the Nature of the higher Bürgerschule."† But to Dr. Wiese's conciliatory disposition and great administrative influence, public opinion assigns in large measure the official recognition which has been gradually granted to the new movement. And it is characteristic of the man that what he did was in no way due to a despairing sense of the necessity of yielding to crude and ignorant demands forced on the State by an up-growth of ill-informed opinion, but simply to the conviction, slowly reached by study and observation, that the new movement had right behind it and was the inevitable expression of a new national need. In consequence of this sympathetic and thoughtful handling of a contentious question, the action of the Prussian Government has been marked by foresight, circumspection, and good sense, which are now bearing fruit in an excellent and well-ordered system of modern secondary schools. Nothing has been done precipitately. At every point the new ideas have been criticised, winnowed, and tested. Ample room has been given for experiment and local initiative, but all that has been done, has been done upon a settled plan,

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* Wiese *Lebenserinnerungen und Amtserfahrungen*, vol. ii., p. 55.

† For a valuable account of the history of the Realschulen, *see* Dr. Paul Thomaschky's *Zur geschichtlichen Entwickelung des Realschulwesens*. Berlin. R. Gaertner's Verlagsbuchhandlung. 1894.

scientifically thought out and adapted in detail to the precise aim in view.

One secret of the organisation of the Prussian system of secondary education lies in the fact that the Government holds the keys to the professions. The entrance to each profession—and the word is used in its widest sense—is confined to those who can produce certain prescribed certificates of previous study. The right, therefore, to award the certificates recognised as qualifying for admission to the given careers of after life is what each grade of school most anxiously seeks. Every parent, planning the future occupation of his son, naturally considers to what grade of school he must send him in order to obtain the necessary qualification for entering on his proposed career. The popularity of any given grade of school depends, therefore, in large measure, on the privileges which its leaving certificates confer, whether they admit to the University or not, and for what branch of higher study they are accepted as qualifying. These privileges the Government holds in its hand. It has, therefore, a control over secondary education which we in England can hardly conceive, and should probably be quite unwilling to tolerate. It is not so much by grants of money as by grants of privilege that the Central Educational Authority of Prussia raises the intellectual standard of its secondary schools. It does not induce improvement by pecuniary aid so much as by attaching certain rights to the certificates awarded by schools of an approved type. The State lays down a number of very different courses of study, fixing, that is, the number of hours per week to be given to each subject, and leaves—or, when necessary, helps—the locality to rise to the standards thus set up. If a town succeeds in doing so, if it is liberal enough to equip a school or schools of an approved type, and if the work of the school is pronounced efficient by the Government inspectors (all of whom have at one time been teachers), the State rewards the town by conferring the envied privilege on its school.* Thus by a somewhat complicated system of graded recognition, described in some detail in the preceding memorandum on the Berlin Realschulen, the State practically calls into existence, and certainly maintains, the educational efficiency of a variety of types of secondary schools.† In methods, in the choice of approved text-books, in internal administration, there is great freedom. In the methods of examination the teacher has far more

* The State often aids a town by establishing in it a Royal secondary school, or by taking over a school originally founded by the municipality. In Berlin there are several Royal secondary schools. There is a Royal Gymnasium in Charlottenburg. These Royal schools form part of the necessary educational provision of the town and exist alongside of the municipal secondary schools, but are under no kind of municipal management. Both Royal and municipal secondary schools, however, are under the same system of Royal inspection. Both conform to the typical curriculum laid down by the Central Education Authority for the grade of school to which they happen to belong.

† *Cp.* for a well-arranged summary of the privileges (Berechtigungen) of the different types of higher schools, *In Welche Schule schicke ich meinen Sohn?* Hannover. (Goedel.)

voice and influence than is often the case in those English secondary schools, which are examined by external authority alone, although there is now a happily increasing disposition on the part of our examining authorities to adapt their requirements to the needs of individual schools, and to have regard to the process of teaching and to the tone of the school, as well as to the mere results of examination papers.* But on the side of school curriculum the individual school has more freedom in England than in Prussia. Each system has its drawbacks and its advantages. If from some points of view the Prussian system seems a little rigid, it does at least entail the necessity of thinking out questions of curriculum, of justifying changes of educational plan, of scientifically adapting means to ends. It prevents a hugger-mugger kind of growth. It fortifies the head master against the pressure of the stupid parent who wants one thing or another dropped out of his lad's curriculum or introduced into it, not from any reasoned conviction, but from whim or ignorance. Again, it causes the results of any variation in the curriculum, when permitted (as is now by no means seldom the case), to be more carefully watched and recorded than is the case with us. Experiments are not wasted; experience is less apt to be thrown away; the profession as a whole knows more of what its individual members are doing. There is a far more organised professional literature; the scientific study of educational aims and methods is more systematic and general. On the other hand there is perhaps less exuberant life, less independence of action, less variety of initiative, less opportunity for bold experiment, less individuality in school traditions. The head master has less of the burden and delight of carrying out an educational policy of his own. The bad teacher has less immunity from correction; the impostor less chance of cozening the public. There may be less originality, but there is also less adulteration.

To transplant the system of the one country to the other would be impossible. Education, indeed, is a thing far too closely intertwined with the fibre of a nation's life, too intimately bound up with its past history and with its social and political condition, for it to be practicable, even were it desired, to import an educational system ready made from abroad. But it is as profitable to compare the advantages of different systems of educational administration and of different methods of school management as it is to compare the merits of different navies or of different processes of manufacture. And, as a matter of fact, the interchange of educational ideas and ideals has always been fruitful of result in the history of all countries. Prussia learnt from Switzerland when Fichte popularised Pestalozzi; England has learnt during the last 60 years from France, from Holland, from Germany, from America, from Scandinavia, according to its

* An account of the method of conducting the leaving examination in Prussian secondary schools will be found in a memorandum by the present writer in Vol. V. of the Report of the Royal Commission on Secondary Education.

different needs at different periods of her educational growth; and now France is paying us the compliment of drawing lessons from our freedom of initiative in higher education,* and Germany of imitating our devotion to school games. Each system, if it has real life in it, yields its own characteristic and valuable product. And perhaps the product of the German organisation of secondary education, which at the present time is of the greatest value to us, is to be found in the typical curricula laid down by authority for the various kinds of secondary schools.

II.

A little volume of less than a hundred pages contains the outcome of Prussian experience on this matter down to the present time.† The present edition contains the typical curricula as remodelled in consequence of the resolutions reached at the great Conference on Higher Education held in Berlin in December 1890. The educational arrangements of Prussia are sometimes spoken of as if they were highly inelastic and unalterable. Such a view is superficial. The fact is that, in so far as a national system of education is alive at all—and German education is far from lacking vitality—it is necessarily an organised expression of public opinion in which old traditions and new movements have either produced variations of type or have blended into compromise. Each development of the national consciousness has produced a corresponding change in the German system of higher education. So far back as 1859 (the same year, it is interesting to note, as that in which the general system of making grants in aid to science schools and classes was first formulated for the whole of our own country‡) were published in Prussia new regulations of determinative importance to higher education. The first breach was then made in the primacy of the old classical school, the Gymnasium, "die Hochburg des Klassizismus." The "Unterrichts- und Prüfungsordnung" of October 6, 1859, recognised the modern studies. The new regulations declared that there was no opposition between the Gymnasium and the Realschule in point of principle, but that the two were complementary parts of one whole.§ The distinction between them had become necessary through the development of science and through changes in the conditions of national life, and the Realschulen had gradually reached a position co-ordinate to that of the Gymnasien.‖ By the year 1871 (our own organised science schools, it may be noted, were first established in 1872) the movement in favour of modern studies had gained further strength all over Western Europe, and the Prussian schools, then known as the Realschulen

* *Cp.* M. Émile Boutmy's introduction to M. Max Leclere's *L'Éducation des classes moyennes et dirigeantes en Angleterre.* Paris. Armand Colin.

† *Lehrpläne und Lehraufgaben für die höheren Schulen.* Berlin. (Wilhelm Herz.)

‡ *Cp. Calendar, &c., of the Department of Science and Art*, p. xiii.

§ The actual words were, "Zwischen Gymnasium und Realschule findet kein "prinzipieller Gegensatz, sondern ein Verhältnis gegenseitiger Ergänzung statt."

‖ *Cp.* Wiese, *op. cit.*, vol. i., pp. 209–216.

I. Ordnung, but now as Realgymnasien, were accorded new privileges. Pupils holding the leaving certificates from these schools were then admitted to university studies in mathematics, natural science, modern languages, and philosophy, but not to the study of medicine.* In 1882 there was another very important revision of the code of regulations for higher schools. The Realschulen I. Ordnung were converted into Realgymnasien, the hours weekly devoted to Latin being increased, and another grade of school—previously under the Ministry of Trade and distinctly technical in character—was raised to the category of higher schools, given a more liberal and educative curriculum, and recognised as the Oberrealschule *with a nine years' course but without Latin.* Mutatis mutandis, we may compare this change to that which has been made in the position of our organised science schools by the new regulations of 1895.

The hierarchy of higher schools, as distinguished by the regulations of March 31, 1882, was as follows :—

I. Classical schools (Gymnasialanstalten) :—
   (*a.*) Gymnasium (with nine years' course).
   (*b.*) Progymnasium (with seven years' course).

II. Modern schools (Reallehranstalten) :—
   (*a.*) With Latin :—
      (i.) Realgymnasium (nine years' course).
      (ii.) Realprogymnasium (seven years' course).
   (*b.*) Without Latin :—
      (i.) Oberrealschule (nine years' course).
      (ii.) Realschule (seven years' course).
      (iii.) Higher Bürgerschule (six years' course).†

The movement in favour of modern secondary education was thus growing stronger and at the same time more differentiated. One section of the Realschulen (the Realgymnasium) received a stronger tincture of Latin, becoming thus a hybrid between the Gymnasium and the Realschule. Another section was frankly recognised as based on modern studies throughout, but with the full course of nine years. The struggle between the old tradition and the new now became clearer than ever. For a time many people thought that the experiment of a higher secondary school, with a course of nine years' study, but without Latin, was doomed to failure. There are still many who deny that it can give in any true sense the secondary education needed in any liberal profession at the present time. But the drift of opinion seems steadily in favour of this type of school as one necessary form in the hierarchy of secondary education.

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* *Cp.* Wiese, *op. cit.*, vol. ii., pp. 55–57.

† *Cp.* Dr. Wiese's Sammlung der Verordnungen und Gesetze für die höheren Schulen in Preussen (ed. Kübler), vol. i., p. 5. (Berlin. Wiegandt and Grieben.)

This became clear in December 1890, when the famous Conference, was summoned at the Royal command by the Ministry of Education to discuss questions affecting higher education. The Conference resolved that in point of principle only two kinds of higher schools would need to be maintained in the future,—viz., (1) the Gymnasium, with both Latin and Greek in their curriculum, and (2) schools without Latin or Greek (the Oberrealschule and the Höhere Bürgerschule).* After a period of further deliberation, conducted by a specially chosen Commission of seven members, the Prussian Education Office published in January 1892 new regulations for higher schools, based in great measure on the resolutions passed by the Conference in 1890. These regulations gave the Oberrealschule practically the same privileges as the Realgymnasium, with the exception of the right of entrance to the higher military service and to the study of modern languages at the University.

This change gave rise to an animated controversy. As Dr. Wiese humorously says of his own experience, "Wer "Schulen einrichtet, baut am Wege und hat viele Kritiker." There were now three parties, viz. those who maintained that Latin and Greek were necessary elements in a liberal education; those who discarded Greek but held with strong conviction to Latin; and those who argued that, provided the same standard of thoroughness now reached in the study of the classics in our best classical schools were applied to the modern languages, history and literature, there was nothing to prevent a modern education from reaching the same level of excellence as the older schools. During the last few years the advocates of the Realschulen seem to have gained influence at the expense of the supporters of Realgymnasien. It is hard for a foreigner to judge, and I express the opinion with much misgiving, but from what I have heard I am led to believe that educational opinion in Prussia is becoming more polarised, and that the Realgymnasium is going somewhat out of favour.

The curriculum of the purely modern secondary school must be based either predominantly on science and mathematics with an infusion of letters, *or* predominantly on linguistic and humane studies with a due proportion of science and mathematics. It will be observed that it is the former of these two types of curriculum which with us receives grants from the State. The Government aids "organised science schools," which now are required to give a certain proportion of library teaching, alongside of the science or mathematics predominant in their curriculum. But it does not aid what might be regarded as the parallel type of modern secondary school, viz., those laying the greatest stress on modern languages, literature and history, but requiring alongside of those studies a certain standard of attainment in science and mathematics.

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* *Cp. Verhandlungen über Fragen des höheren Unterrichts.* Berlin. 1891. Wilhelm Herz. (p. 795.)

The grades of secondary schools, now recognised by the Central Educational Authority in Prussia, are as follows. It will be noticed that the seven years' course of the Progymnasien and of the Realprogymnasien has been reduced to six, and that the Realschulen, which formerly had a seven years' course, and the höhere Bürgerschulen with a six years' course, have been assimilated under one category.

I. Classical Schools:—
  (i.) Gymnasium (nine years' course).
  (ii.) Progymnasium (six years' course).

II. Modern Schools.
  (*a.*) With Latin:—
    (i.) Realgymnasium (nine years' course).
    (ii.) Realprogymnasium (six years' course).
  (*b.*) Without Latin:—
    (i.) Oberrealschule (nine years' course),
    (ii.) Realschule (six years' course).

The following is the curriculum (Lehrplan) of the Oberrealschule as given in the current regulations for Prussian higher schools.* The classes are numbered from the top, sexta being the lowest of the nine. The table shows the number of hours given weekly to each subject in each class, and in the whole school:—

Subject.	Number of the Class.									Total Number of Hours Weekly in the School, exclusive of home lessons.
	VI.	V.	IV.	IIIB.	IIIA.	IIB.	IIA.	IB.	IA.	
Religion	3	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	19
Mother-tongue, including narration of national events	4 / 1 } 5	{ 3 / 1 } 4	4	3	3	3	4	4	4	34
French	6	6	6	6	6	5	4	4	4	47
English	—	—	—	5	4	4	4	4	4	25
History and geography	2	2	{ 2 / 2	2 / 2	2 / 2	2 / 1 }	3	3	3	28
Arithmetic and mathematics.	5	5	6	6	5	5	5	5	5	47
Natural history	2	2	2	2	2	2	—	—	—	12
Physics	—	—	—	—	2	2	3	3	3	13
Chemistry and mineralogy	—	—	—	—	—	2	3	3	3	11
Writing	2	2	2	—	—	—	—	—	—	6
Freehand drawing	—	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	16
Total of hours in each class.	25	25	28	30	30	30	30	30	30	258

* *Lehrpläne und Lehraufgaben für die höheren Schulen*, p. 7.

The following table, abridged from the *Statistisches Jahrbuch der Höheren Schulen, 1896–7*,* shows the present relative positions of the various types of higher schools in Prussia :—

Year.	Number of Schools.	Number of Scholars	
		In the Upper School.	In the Preparatory Department.
A.—Gymnasien.			
Summer half-year, 1892	272	77,243	9,326
Winter „ 1892–3	272	74,951	9,485
Summer „ 1893	274	77,266	9,147
Winter „ 1893–4	274	75,266	9,413
Summer „ 1894	274	77,300	9,011
Winter „ 1894–5	274	75,233	9,181
B.—Progymnasien.			
Summer half year, 1892	44	4,285	390
Winter „ 1892–3	44	4,155	459
Summer „ 1893	44	4,180	307
Winter „ 1893–4	44	4,027	259
Summer „ 1894	44	4,474	293
Winter „ 1894–5	44	4,372	298
C.—Realgymnasien.			
Summer half year, 1892	89	25,601	4,062
Winter „ 1892–3	88	24,781	4,081
Summer „ 1893	87	25,258	4,443
Winter „ 1893–4	87	24,499	3,903
Summer „ 1894	86	25,213	3,802
Winter „ 1894–5	86	24,608	3,812
D.—Realprogymnasien.			
Summer half year, 1892	83	8,409	1,540
Winter „ 1892–3	84	8,169	1,508
Summer „ 1893	79	7,768	1,203
Winter „ 1893–4	79	7,449	1,218
Summer „ 1894	75	7,238	1,096
Winter „ 1894–5	74	6,750	1,070

* Leipzig. Teubner (II. Abteilung, p. 1037[2]).

Year.	Number of Schools.	Number of Scholars	
		In the Upper School.	In the Preparatory Department.
E.—Oberrealschulen.			
Summer half year, 1892	12	5,647	885
Winter „ 1892–3	12	5,516	903
Summer „ 1893	20	8,912	1,140
Winter „ 1893–4	20	8,664	1,162
Summer „ 1894	22	9,715	1,341
Winter „ 1894–5	24	10,156	1,644
F.—Realschulen.*			
Summer half year, 1892	55	19,334	3,830
Winter „ 1892–3	55	19,231	3,806
Summer „ 1893	63	18,567	3,814
Winter „ 1893–4	64	18,344	3,782
Summer „ 1894	68	19,478	3,701
Winter „ 1894–5	67	18,924	3,406

A later table in the *Statistisches Jahrbuch*† for 1896–7 gives the figures for the whole of Germany. The summary shows the following number of higher schools in the years 1894 and 1895 :—

	1894.	1895.
Gymnasien	434	436
Progymnasien	86	92
Realgymnasien	130	129
Oberrealschulen	33	35
Realschulen	171	183
Höhere Bürgerschulen	2	2

It will be noticed that, while the Gymnasien and Progymnasien are slowly increasing, and the Oberrealschulen, together with the Realschulen, somewhat more rapidly so, the Realgymnasien are stationary, or even going backwards.

* The Prussian höhere Bürgerschulen, with a six years' course, have borne since 1891 the name of Realschulen. The last-named category now includes the Realschulen, which formerly had a seven years' course, and the höhere Bürgerschulen. There are no longer in Prussia any schools bearing the latter name.

† P. 1037*.

Out of the 35 Oberrealschulen, not less than 24 are in Prussia, 5 are in Württemberg, 3 in Elsass-Lothringen, and 1 each in Baden, Oldenburg, and Brunswick.

The movement for modern secondary education in Germany is closely connected with the rise of the commercial and industrial spirit, and this fact throws light on the geographical distribution of the Oberrealschulen.

III.

The Oberrealschule at Charlottenburg is in many ways specially interesting to the visitor, and, by the permission of the Prussian Ministry for Education, the director, Dr. Gropp, was so good as to allow me to visit the school in March last. Under his able leadership the school has attained great success, and I was particularly glad to have an opportunity of seeing it at work.

Charlottenburg—famous in the educational world for its great technical institution—is a flourishing and rapidly increasing town in the western environs of Berlin, under an independent municipality, but separated from the metropolis only by the pleasant glades of the Thiergarten.* It is impossible to walk through the broad streets of this brilliant suburb of Berlin without seeing on every side the marks of prosperity and public spirit. Indeed, if rumour be true, the town council of Charlottenburg are determined that in matters educational their town shall hold its own, proportionately to its population, with its greater neighbour, Berlin. I mention this because it would be unfair to take Charlottenburg as typical of the ordinary Prussian municipality.

Besides a Royal Gymnasium, there are in Charlottenburg, which now contains about 150,000 inhabitants, a Realgymnasium, an Oberrealschule, a Reform-Schule (a new type of secondary school recently recognised by the State), still in course of erection, an intermediate school for girls, a Bürgermädchen Schule, as well as a number of private higher schools for girls, a number of primary schools, municipal technical classes and continuation schools, and a school for children of defective intellect—not to speak of the celebrated Polytechnikum (Technische Hochschule), which of course does not form part of the local educational provision. In an appendix to this paper I give an abstract of the educational budget of the municipality of Charlottenburg, which I have drawn from official documents kindly placed at my disposal by Dr. Gropp. It will be seen that the municipality spent on public education of various grades 55,938*l.* in 1895–96, and 62,278*l.* in 1896–97, while in the current financial year it

* Part of Charlottenburg is so closely connected with the capital that of the long Kurfürstenstrasse one side is in Charlottenburg and the other in Berlin.

proposes to devote 83,544*l.* to this purpose. The town council is evidently resolved to spare no efforts in making the school supply of all kinds as varied and efficient as possible.

The municipal council of Charlottenburg has a Schuldeputation for the superintendence of its elementary schools, but this committee has nothing to do with the higher schools for boys, though the girls' intermediate school falls within its province. The municipal higher schools, in the technical sense of the term—the Realgymnasium, the Oberrealschule, and the Reform school—are supported from municipal funds and scholars' fees, controlled and inspected on their educational side by the Provinzial-Schul-Kollegium, as representing the Education Department of the Kingdom of Prussia, and locally superintended (but only so far as buildings and premises are concerned) by a Kuratorium of eight members, consisting of two members of the Magistrat, two Stadtverordnete, two Bürger-Deputirte (both of them men of high professional or educational position), and the directors of the Realgymnasium and of the Oberrealschule. The latter have voting powers at the meetings of the Kuratorium, the members of which hold office for an indefinite time. Thus, while the income of the schools mainly comes from municipal funds, the control of the education is vested in the hands of the central authority, acting through a body of inspectors, all of whom have had experience as teachers; and the immediate supervision of the fabric is entrusted to a special board largely composed of educational experts, resident in the town, and to some extent personally connected with the schools. To this division of authority and balance of experienced control much of the efficiency of Prussian higher education is ascribed by those who speak with special knowledge of the working of the system. Municipal pride and zeal for education supply the greater part of the funds; specially qualified residents watch over the buildings; and a highly skilled central authority, itself in a sense geographically decentralised in the form of State-appointed boards of inspectors for the different provinces of the kingdom, superintends the whole of the educational work and sees that it conforms with the requirements laid down by the official regulations of the State.

The Oberrealschule of Charlottenburg was at Easter, 1896, raised from the rank of a Realschule. The consequent change in its organisation is not yet complete. As a Realschule has a six years' course and an Oberrealschule one of nine years, a school which is converted from the one type into the second has gradually to add to its top three classes (each class in two sub-divisions, in order to provide for the two groups of boys who entered the school at Michaelmas and Easter respectively). Since Easter, 1897, the Charlottenburg Oberrealschule has had all the classes up to and including I B.—the second from the top. At Easter, 1898, it will add a class I A. (corresponding to the upper sixth form at an English public school), and thus have grown into its

complete organisation. But just as in many English secondary schools the two divisions of the sixth are taken together in some subjects, so in the Oberrealschulen, when there are less than 30 boys in Oberprima and Unterprima (IA. and IB.) together, these two highest classes are combined. As, however, both Oberprima and Unterprima will have an Easter and a Michaelmas division (the boys in the former being half a year ahead in school standing, as the school year begins after the Easter holidays), there may sometimes be in such a combined class of IA. and IB. no less than four separate generations. This naturally causes difficulties in the teaching of the highest classes in schools which are thinly attended at the top, but the hardship does not arise in the larger institutions.*

The Charlottenburg Oberrealschule has a preparatory school (Vorschule) in the same building. Including the preparatory school, which has three classes of its own, the number of boys in the institution in April 1897 was 841. The staff consisted at Easter, 1896, of 26 teachers, viz., the director (Dr. Gropp), 14 Oberlehrer, three highly qualified Hülfslehrer, a teacher of drawing, a teacher of gymnastics, and six preparatory school teachers. With the exception of the teachers of drawing and gymnastics, all the teachers in the Oberrealschule proper are University graduates, subsequently trained in the theory and practice of teaching. The director is nominated by the Magistrat of Charlottenburg, and, with the approval of the Education Department, confirmed in his appointment by the Crown. He is a member of the Civil Service, as are also indirectly the other teachers. The other teachers are chosen by the Magistrat, but have to be approved by the Provinzial-Schul-Kollegium, the State Board of Inspectors, which is the decentralised part of the central authority.

On the general subject of the preparatory schools for the secondary schools there has been some little controversy. Some people think that the elementary school ought to be the sole preparatory school for the secondary school. Dr. Gropp, however, is not of this opinion. He has a certain number of pupils who come into the Oberrealschule. They are ready ("ripe," as the German phrase goes) for the lowest class of the Oberrealschule

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* In certain towns (for example, in Berlin, Charlottenburg, Danzig, Stettin, Hamburg and Halle), the internal organisation of the secondary schools provides for parallel divisions in each class (but usually only up to Unter-Sekunda, *i.e.*, II B.), in order to meet the needs of boys who entered the schools at Easter and Michaelmas respectively. Thus a boy who enters at Easter will go up the school, at least as far as II B., in the Easter parallel. Few higher schools in Prussia, however, have these Easter and Michaelmas parallel divisions (Wechselcöten) in their three highest classes, viz., in II A., I B., and I A. In South Germany the Wechselcöten are not known. In the Prussian secondary schools, there are three varying types of class organisation, viz. (1) a single class for each school year. (2) Parallel classes for each school year (Parallelcöten), both being entered alike at Easter, and (3) Wechselcöten, entered at Easter and Michaelmas respectively, and carried all through the school up to II B.

when they have been promoted into the second class from the top in the elementary school, *i.e.*, when they have been four years in the latter school and are 10 years of age. But in the preparatory school of the Oberrealschule boys attain the same standard in three years' work instead of four. They thus save a year by being in a school directly aiming at preparation for the Oberrealschule. This is one of the problems in public education alike in Germany and in England. The head master of an organised science school with us likes, as a rule, to have the supervision of the work of boys, who are preparing for the organised science department of his school, for some two years before they actually enter it. The secondary school proper strikes its roots down into the preparatory stratum. On the type of secondary school which a boy means to enter, depends in large measure the kind of preparatory education which he ought to receive. Thus, in England, there is an admirable group of schools which prepare little boys for the great public schools. On the other hand, many experienced leaders in German education deny that it is expedient, and urge that it ought not be necessary, thus to segregate the lads, who are intending to go to the higher secondary schools, from those who are receiving their education in the primary school. According to these critics, the primary school ought to be so arranged that its curriculum is at once suitable for lads who leave at 14 and do not go on to the higher secondary school, and for those who would leave it at 10 or 12 in order to pass into a secondary school. The primary school, they urge, should (so far as it goes) be an *Einheits-schule*. Dr. Gropp, however, and those who think with him, deny this. They argue that the preparatory school does an indispensable work of its own. If it were abolished they contend that, though some parents might send their boys to the primary school instead, a large number would place their sons in private schools or under private teachers, and that such a change would injure the unity of public education more than the present arrangements. The question is a difficult one, and has a social and economic, as well as a pedagogical, side. Its solution on other lines than the present ones would involve a remodelling of the curriculum of the public elementary school, and this, though strongly advocated by some writers, is far from being generally admitted to be desirable.

Here is the natural place for the mention of some figures which Dr. Gropp kindly gave me as showing the occupations of the parents of the boys in the Oberrealschule at Charlottenburg. The return is dated Easter, 1895 :—

Public servants of the middle and lower grades -	251
Artisans working on their own account - -	138
Employés of various kinds - - -	35
Shopkeepers and clerks - - - -	135
Restaurant keepers - - - -	48
Architects and engineers - - -	32

Manufacturers, in a large or small way of business	11
Farmers	8
Artists and musicians	7
Teachers in higher schools	3
Higher grades of civil servants	7
Independent means	20
Unknown	20

It will be noted that the higher civil servants and professional men usually send their sons to Gymnasien or Realgymnasien.

The school fees are 5*l.* a year for pupils in the two highest classes; 4*l.* a year for pupils in the remaining classes of the Oberrealschule; and 3*l.* 12*s.* for pupils in the Preparatory School. Extra fees are paid for the optional course in manual training. There are 80 free places in the school.* These free places are awarded by the municipality. There are no scholarships in aid of maintenance in addition to these remissions of school fees. Free places are granted in consideration of this worth and need of the applicants. In the appendix to this paper I have inserted the actual form of application, which shows the circumstances taken into account. Dr. Gropp told me that the free scholars are in no way looked down upon by the rest of the pupils. The free places, however, are not awarded by competitive examination, but on consideration of the needs of the parents. If a man has three children in the public schools of the town, he usually gets one free place, but there is no rule on the subject, though in some towns it is the practice to allow one-third of a family to attend school free. "High fees," said Dr. Gropp to me in a striking phrase, which shows the German feeling of the necessity of a good education, "high fees are a blood tax."

The buildings of the school are attractive and admirably fitted for their purpose. If the design of the elevation is not quite to the English taste, the internal arrangements are excellently planned. The building is of brick, and of four storeys. It stands on high ground and in a very healthy place. From the upper windows the eye commands a wide and attractive view, though new streets of high buildings are gradually creeping up on two sides. The structure (exclusive of furniture) cost the municipality 24,500*l.*—a sum which does not include the value of the site, as the latter had been for a long time in the possession of the town. An interesting account of the building, from the pen of Herr Stadtbaurat Brating, is contained in the report of the school for 1891–92.†

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* Ten per cent. of the total number of scholars (including those in the preparatory school) have free places. But the free places are only given to scholars who are no longer in the preparatory school. In some cases half the fees are remitted instead of the whole.

† Bericht über das Schuljahr 1891–92, erstattet von dem Rektor Dr. Gropp (Charlottenburg: druck von Adolf Gertz).

In going over the school I was much struck by the bright look on the boys' faces and by the general feeling of efficiency which pervaded the whole institution. The long and beautiful corridors on the ground and first floors allow easy circulation from one class-room to another, and gives room for a certain amount of exercise in bad weather. The collections of models and specimens used in scientific teaching, and of maps and plans for historical and geographical lessons, are, as is the case in almost all German schools, ample and admirably chosen. The laboratory was originally designed only for the teacher's use, and, though the boys now make use of it to some degree, it is too small for the purpose. The laboratory accommodation in the English secondary schools of the newer type is, thanks to the aid of the Science and Art Department and of the Technical Instruction Committees of the County and County Borough Councils, much more extensive than that provided in the German Realschulen and Oberrealschulen, which I had an opportunity of visiting. Indeed, some of the German teachers think that we have gone to some excess in providing laboratories for practical work, the fact being that, on this point, there is a certain difference of opinion between the German and English authorities for secondary education. Our modern secondary education has more applied science and less linguistic discipline than has the German. The difference probably corresponds to a certain divergence in the intellectual bias of the two nations, but may also be traced to historical and administrative circumstances. Certainly the German Realschulen struck me as having more of the old educational tradition *writ anew*, in a different dialect and with an altered subject matter, than have some of our modern secondary schools established under the regulations for organised science schools.

At the top of the building, filling part of two storeys, is a beautiful hall, where the whole school (except the boys in the preparatory department) meets once a week, and on certain other occasions, for a short service with a hymn and Bible reading. There is no religious difficulty in the school. With the exception of a few Roman Catholics, Jews, and Dissidenten (the latter word being not equivalent to our Nonconformist, but implying a certain attitude of dissent from revealed religion), the boys all come from Evangelical families. In Appendix II., at the end of this paper, will be found a summary of the religious denominations of the parents of the pupils in the school year 1895–96.

The teachers' library on the third floor greatly interested me. The wall at one end of the room is covered with a great rack of pigeon-holes, in which are kept in neat order the school reports issued by all the higher schools in Germany. It is a valuable custom in Germany for each secondary school to publish an annual report, containing a full analysis of the curriculum, plans of the arrangement of work, a list of the teachers and their duties, a record of the school's history during the year, important orders received from the central

authority, statistical tables prepared with the utmost completeness and care, catalogues of additions to the school libraries and collections, and information for parents and pupils. Accompanying the report is often a supplement which contains a short scientific or literary treatise written by a member of the teaching staff. There lie before me a number of these supplements, which show the intellectual activity of the secondary school teachers. One is on the history of the movement for the establishment of Realschulen—practically the only document dealing with this important subject. Another is entitled "De "Plutarchi codice manuscripto Matritensi," from the accomplished pen of Dr. Carl Theodor Michaelis, Director of the Seventh Realschule in Berlin. A third has the title "Über Diastaseforschungen"; a fourth, "Über die Vegetativen Diastase-Fermente"; another is on methods of modern language teaching; another on the Nibelungen Lied; another on geometrical teaching; another on the acoustical properties of the violin; another on the history of the elementary school system in England. These reports form a valuable record of the progress of secondary education throughout Germany, and their publication must greatly conduce to professional efficiency and emulation. In the Oberrealschule at Charlottenburg the reports from all the German secondary schools are received in exchange for copies of the school's own annual publication. The "clearing house" for this fruitful exchange is Messrs. Teubner's firm in Leipzig.

The art room in the Charlottenburg Oberrealschule is excellently equipped. Every boy in the upper division is required to learn drawing, but curiously enough the subject is not taught in the preparatory school. This seems to me a mistake, as the educational influence of drawing is strongly marked in the early years of a lad's school life. The art master at the Charlottenburg school is evidently a man of talent. Besides the pupils' work, I saw some excellent drawings from his own brush and also a number of carvings which he had recently executed. The drawing done by the pupils is mostly freehand from copies and casts. Brush and colour work begin in the higher forms—an arrangement which might be modified with advantage, as early familiarity with the use of the brush is of high educational use owing to the freedom of style which it imparts. On the whole, I did not think that, though much of the work was admirable, the interest of the drawings was as great as that of some which I have seen in a few English schools, but the art master told me that there is now a movement in Germany in favour of earlier drawing from nature.*

The Gymnasium is a splendid building, and I spent a pleasant half hour watching some classes at their gymnastic lessons, with delight on every face and no common display of gymnastic

* In the Oberrealschule at Charlottenburg, manual instruction is also given by the teacher of drawing, but this is an exceptional arrangement.

skill, although there was no showing-off or attempt to break the regular tenour of the lesson. Dr. Gropp showed me with pride his turfed playground—a very rare addition to the equipment of a German school. Here games will in future be played. I asked if the lads had ever tried cricket, Dr. Gropp told me that he had bought the materials, but the boys failed to make successful use of them, as they did not know how to set about playing the game in the proper way.

IV.

I now turn to the curriculum of the school. The table and analysis, which follow, show the general scope of the instruction and the distribution of the hours of work. It should be clearly understood that these schools do not aim at premature technical training. Any such plan is entirely foreign to their aim. They seek to give a liberal education by exclusively modern studies. They are the pendant to the old classical schools. Many teachers of the older generation are sceptical as to the possibility of getting a truly liberal training out of a curriculum, which excludes not only Greek but Latin. On this subject opinions are still divided, and all that can be done is to wait for time to prove the value of the experiment. For certain professions, indeed, under existing arrangements, the Latin-less secondary school cannot be the best preparation But I found no one who questioned the extreme value of these schools, aiming as they do at sound and liberal culture, for lads intended for the higher branches of shopkeeping, for agricultural pursuits, and for the superintendence of industrial concerns. The German does not believe in too early technical specialisation. He wishes to prepare the lad, who will afterwards proceed to technical studies, by a liberal education based on lines not foreign to his normal experience and future occupation. He aims at equipping the boy with the amount of knowledge, and with the standard of intellectual thoroughness, which will enable him in his after life to penetrate beneath the surface of things, to form a sound and comprehensive judgment on the facts connected with his future career, and to extract the wherewithal of deepening culture from the ordinary experiences of commercial and industrial life.

I was careful to ask Dr. Gropp and others whether the boys in German secondary schools are overworked. On this point I found diversity of opinion. Dr. Gropp told me that promising boys did the work easily enough, but that stupid boys found it heavy. As to the relation of these modern schools with the classical schools, I was informed by many teachers in each type of institution that the Realschulen and the Oberrealschulen have actually been a relief to the Gymnasien by drawing away from the latter a number of boys who, though not necessarily stupid, were intellectually unfitted for the classical training and more

naturally interested in modern subjects. But the Realgymnasien complain a little about the increasing competition of the purely modern schools. The fact is that German secondary education, like our own, is in a transitional stage. This is a time of experiment. We cannot yet pronounce a final verdict on the educational results of many of the new undertakings. Various schemes are in the air for the remodelling of the curriculum of the higher schools of Prussia, and for the combination of various types of school in one carefully planned institution with a common foundation in the lower forms and branches spreading out in different directions in the higher stages. Experiments are already being made to test the possibility of such an arrangement. But in the meantime it is impossible to visit these modern schools without feeling a strong sense of their public utility and educational promise.

The following table shows the separate branches of instruction in the school, and the number of hours assigned to each:—

I.—The separate Branches of Instruction and the Number of Hours assigned to each.

Branches of Instruction.	Number of Hours in each Week (exclusive of Home Lessons).																						
	Oberrealschule.															Vorschule.							
	I.	IIA.	IIB.		IIIA.		IIIB.		IV.		V.		VI.		Total.	1.		2.		3.		Total.
			E.	M.	E.	M.	E.	M.	E.	M.	E.	M.	E.	M.		E.	M.	E.	M.	E.	M.	
Religious instruction	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	3	3	26	2	2	2	2	2	2	12
German (including narration of national events).	4	4	3	3	3	3	3	3	4	4	{3 / 1} 4	{3 / 1} 4	{4 / 1} 5	{4 / 1} 5	52	9	9	8	8	9*	9*	52
French	4	4	5	5	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	78	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
English	4	4	4	4	4	4	5	5	—	—	—	—	—	—	34	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
History and geography	3	3	3	3	4	4	4	4	4	4	2	2	2	2	44	1	1	—	—	—	—	2
Arithmetic and mathematics	5	5	5	5	5	5	6	6	6	6	5	5	5	5	74	5	5	5	5	5	5	30
Natural history and botany	—	—	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	24	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Physics	3	3	2	2	2	2	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	14	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Chemistry and mineralogy	3	3	2	2	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	10	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Writing	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	2	2	2	2	2	2	12	3	3	3	3	—	—	12
Drawing (freehand)	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	—	—	{24 / 8}	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
„ (geometrical), optional	2		2		2	2	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—		—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Singing	2				2						2	2	2	2	10	1	1	1	1	1	1	6
Gymnastics	3		3		3		3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	33	2	2	2	2	1	1	10
Total	35	35	35	35	35	35	35	35	35	35	30	30	30	30	447	23	23	21	21	18	18	124
			or with optional geometrical drawing, 37 hours.																			

"*E*" signifies the division of the class which begins its year's work at Easter; "M" that which begins at Michaelmas. A boy remains one year in each class up to IIA. and two years in I.

* Including writing.

I now give an abstract of the curriculum of the school :—

OUTLINE OF THE WORK TO BE DONE DURING THE YEAR (1897–98).*

Class I. (The highest in the school.)

1. *Religious Instruction.*—Some of the Epistles of St. Paul. St. James. The Gospel of St. John. Church history to the time of Luther.

2. *German.*—Schiller's and Goethe's Gedankenlyrik. Klopstock's Odes. King Œdipus of Sophocles. Lessing's Laokoon and Goethe's Iphigenia. History of literature. Essay writing.

3. *French.*—Corneille, Horace; Arago, Histoire de ma jeunesse. Lanfrey, Campagne de 1806–7 (from the History of Napoleon). Le gendre de M. Poirier. Gropp and Hausknecht, French poetry. Literary History. Grammar. Composition.

4. *English.*—Shakespeare, Macbeth. Macaulay, History of England. Gropp and Hausknecht, English poetry. Literary history. Grammar. Composition.

5. *History and Geography.*—History of the middle ages and of modern times, with special reference to the history of Brandenburg and Prussia. Economic and commercial development of modern times. Physical and political geography. The most important trade routes and means of commercial intercourse.

6. *Mathematics.*—Conic sections. Spherical trigonometry and its application to mathematical geography.

7. *Physics.*—Mechanics of solids, &c. The theory of waves. Acoustics. Theory of heat.

8. *Chemistry.*—The metals, with special reference to technology. Practical work in laboratory.

9. *Drawing.*—Drawing from the model. Practice with the brush. Perspective.

Class II A.

1. *Religious Instruction.*—Isaiah. The Acts of the Apostles. Some of the Epistles of St. Paul.

2. *German.*—Goethe, Götz von Berlichingen, and Egmont. Nibelungenlied. Literary history. Composition.

3. *French.*—Napoleon at Moscow. Daudet, Selected Stories. Prosody and grammar.

4. *English.*—Scott, Quentin Durward. Dickens, Christmas Carol. Gropp and Hausknecht's English Poetry. Prosody and Grammar.

5. *History and Geography.*—Greek and Roman history. Review of work previously done in physical geography. Trade routes.

6. *Mathematics.*—Quadratic equations. Arithmetical and geometrical progression. Compound interest. Harmonics.

* Part of this has been abridged by Mr. Twentyman, from the *Bericht über das Schuljahr*, 1895-96, of the Städtische Realschule at Charlottenburg (Charlottenburg. Druck von Richard Münch. Berliner Strasse 110). The rest is based on later information sent to me by Dr. Gropp.

7. *Physics.*—Heat, magnetism, and electricity.
8. *Chemistry.*—General chemical conceptions. Metalloids.
9. *Drawing.*—Drawing from models and from nature. Projection.

Class II. B.

1. *Religious Instruction.*—St. Matthew. Analysis of the catechism. Distinctions of creeds. Geography of Palestine. The history of the Reformation. Repetition of psalms and hymns.
2. *German.*—Minna von Barnhelm, Hermann und Dorothea, and Jungfrau von Orleans.
3. *French.*—Sarcey, Siège de Paris. Gropp and Hausknecht, Selection of French poetry. Syntax of pronouns.
4. *English.*—Macaulay, Lord Clive. Gropp and Hausknecht, Selection of English poetry. Syntax of the article, substantive, adjective, pronoun.
5. *History.*—German and Prussian history from the death of Frederick the Great to the present time; having regard to the history of other civilised states within the same period.
6. *Geography.*—Germany and its colonies. Austria-Hungary. Elementary physical and mathematical geography.
7. *Mathematics.*—Solution of simultaneous and quadratic equations. Logarithms. Plane trigonometry (solution of triangles). Elements of solid geometry.
8. *Natural History.*—(*a.*) Botany. Studies in the anatomy and physiology of plants.
(*b.*) Zoology. Studies in human anatomy and physiology, with special reference to the care of health.
9. *Physics.*—Mechanics and optics.
10. *Chemistry.*—Introduction to chemical processes.
11. *Drawing.*—Freehand. Drawing from a cast of ornament and natural objects. Perspective. Drawing of sections.

Class III. A.

1. *Religious Instruction.*—The Kingdom of God in the New Testament (particularly the Sermon on the Mount and the Parables). History of the Reformation, connected with the life of Luther.
2. *German.*—Ballads of Schiller, Goethe, and Uhland. Translation of Iliad and Odyssey. Schiller's Glocke, Wilhelm Tell, and Nibelungenlied.
3. *French.*—Lamé-Fleury, Histoire de France. Gropp and Hausknecht, French poetry. Syntax of article and adjective
4. *English.*—Hausknecht, The English Student. W. Irving The Tales of the Alhambra. Syntax of the verb.
5. *History.*—History of Germany and Brandenburg. Prussian history from the close of the Middle Ages to the death of Frederick the Great.

6. *Geography.*—The countries of Europe (excluding Germany).

7. *Mathematics.*—Ratio of lines. Similarity of figures. Proportionality of straight lines in a circle. Measurement of rectilineal figures and of the circle. Mensuration. Proportion. Powers. Roots. Equations of the first degree with one or more unkowns.

8. *Physics.*—General properties of bodies. Elements of magnetism, electricity, sound and heat.

9. *Natural History.*—(*a.*) Botany. Summary of a natural classification of plants. The chief facts about the life and structure of plants and their geographical distribution.

(*b.*) Zoology. Examples of the lower animals. Survey of the whole animal kingdom.

10. *Drawing.*—Freehand from casts of ornament. Geometrical. Introduction to the use of triangles and compasses. Division of a straight line and of an angle. The scale. Regular polygons. The ellipse. The spiral. The cycloid.

Class III. B.

1. *Religious Instruction.*—The Kingdom of God in the Old Testament. Selections from the Psalms and Job. Instruction about the church services of the Christian year.

2. *German.*—Selections of poetry and prose, in particular Uhland's and Schiller's ballads. Systematic summary of all the grammar learnt.

3. *French.*—Erkmann-Chatrian, Histoire d'un Conscrit du 1813. Gropp and Hausknecht, French poetry. Syntax of the verb.

4. *English.*—Hausknecht, The English Student. The accidence and the chief rules of syntax.

5. *History.*—History of the Roman Empire. History of Germany and Brandenburg to the close of the Middle Ages.

6. *Geography.*—Geography of Germany. More extended notions of physical and mathematical geography.

7. *Mathematics.*—The circle. Regular polygons. Equality of surface of figures. Conversion of a fixed area into various figures. The first four rules with integers, fractions, and algebraical symbols. Easy equations of the first degree with one unknown.

8. *Natural History.*—(*a.*) Botany. The more difficult families of plants with covered and uncovered seeds; and some plants with concealed blossoms. Cultivated plants of foreign countries. (excursions).

(*b.*) Zoology. Studies of insects.

9. *Drawing.*—Freehand. Drawing of wooden bodies, industrial art objects.

Class IV.

1. *Religious Instruction.*—Bible stories of the Old and New Testaments. Geography of Palestine. Repetition of hymns, &c.

2. *German.*—The compound sentence. The chief elements in the formation of words connected with typical examples. Extracts of prose and poetry from the reading-book.

3. *French.*—Gropp and Hausknecht, French poetry. Prose reading. The inflections of the regular conjugations. The irregular verbs in a logical order.

4. *History.*—History of Oriental nations (excluding the people of Israel). Greek history from Draco to Alexander the Great and his successors.

5. *Geography.*—Physical and political geography of the countries of Europe (not including Germany). Drawing of simple outline maps on the blackboard and in note-books.

6. *Mathematics.*—(*a.*) Geometry. The straight line; angles, triangles, parallelogram, trapezium, trapezoid. Calculations of content. Exercises in mensuration. (*b.*) Arithmetic. Conversion of vulgar into decimal fractions and *vice versâ*. Application of the first four rules with whole numbers and decimals and vulgar fractions to calculations of everyday life.

7. *Natural History.*—(*a.*) Botany. Comparative description of related mono- and dicotyledons, and determination of 12 families. Vital phenomena of plants.

(*b.*) Zoology. Classification of vertebrate animals.

8. *Writing.*—German and Latin characters. Copying printed matter.

9. *Drawing.*—Conventional forms of leaves and blossoms.

Class V.

1. *Religious Instruction.*—Bible stories from the New Testament. Repetition of 26 texts, 1 psalm, and 4 hymns.

2. *German.*—The simple sentence. The most important rules as to the compound sentence. Practice in the cases governed by verbs. Punctuation. Oral reproduction. The chief Greek and Roman myths.

3. *French.*—Pronouns, plural of nouns, formation of feminine and irregular comparison of adjectives. Conjunctive of *avoir* and *être* and of the regular verbs. Gender of substantives. Numerals. Irregular verbs in connexion with the reading material.

4. *Geography.*—Physical and political geography of Germany. Further explanation of reliefs, the globe and map.

5. *Arithmetic.*—Vulgar fractions. Easy examples in the Rule of Three.

6. *Natural History.*—(*a.*) Botany. More thorough knowledge of the external organs of flowering plants. Formation of an herbarium.

(*b.*) Zoology. Comparative description of the more important vertebrate animals. The human skeleton.

7. *Writing.*—German and Latin characters. Copying of sentences from the board. Roundhand. Music copying. Greek letters employed in mathematics.

8. *Drawing.*—Straight and curved lines and their application to form simple patterns on the flat.

Class VI.

1. *Religious Instruction.*—The chief Bible stories of the Old Testament down to Solomon. Before the chief Church festivals the corresponding stories of the New Testament. Luther's Catechism, Parts I.–II.

2. *German.*—History narrative. Parts of speech. Parts of a simple sentence. Strong and weak declensions. Conjugations and government of verbs Oral reproduction of narrative. Tales of national history from the present day to Charles the Great.

3. *French.*—The article, the partitive, declension of nouns, regular formation of feminine and regular comparison of adjectives. Numerals. Easy reading pieces.

4. *Geography.*—Simple notions of physical and mathematical geography, thorough observation of the immediate surroundings.

5. *Arithmetic.*—Repetition of the first four rules, using concrete and abstract whole numbers. German weights and measures. The first four rules with decimals.

6. *Natural History.*—(*a.*) Botany. Description of 15 simple plants. Elementary general ideas as to plants.

(*b.*) Zoology. The same course with 15 mammals and birds.

PREPARATORY SCHOOL.

Class I.

1. *Religious Instruction.*—Selected stories from the Old and New Testaments. The Ten Commandments with explanations.

2. *German.*—Fluent and intelligent reading of German and Latin print. Discussion and reproduction (oral) of reading pieces (prose and poetry). Length of vowels, letters of the same or similar sound.

3. *Arithmetic.*—The first four rules for any numbers.

4. *Home Surroundings.*—The school house and the neighbouring streets, horizon, the four points of the compass. Charlottenburg, Berlin, the province Brandenburg. The provinces of Prussia and their divisions.

5. *Writing.*—German and Latin characters in words and sentences. Arabic and Roman figures.

Class II.

1. *Religious Instruction.*—Selected stories from the Old and New Testament. Learning of the Ten Commandments without explanation.

2. *German.*—Practice in intelligent reading of German and Latin print. Recognition of substantives, adjectives and verbs.

The article. Declension of substantives with the article. Personal pronouns. Indicative of verbs.

3. *Arithmetic.*—Mental arithmetic, the first four rules with numbers between 1 and 1,000; in writing with numbers not limited in size, addition, subtraction, multiplication.

4. *Writing.*—German and Latin characters in letters, words, and sentences. Figures.

Class III.

1. *Religious Instruction.*—Selected stories of the Old and New Testaments. (Hymns, texts, and prayers.)

2. *German.*—Practice in reading, dividing words into syllables and letters, and copying.

3. *Arithmetic.*—Oral and written practice with numbers, one to 100.

4. *Writing.*—No special times. Connected with the instruction in German.

It is intended by the Municipal Council of Charlottenburg to establish a scholarship of the value of 20*l.* to be held by a pupil of the Oberrealschule at a university or technical school in Germany or abroad. It is to be given in the first instance for one year, but may be continued for two further years.

V.

In the appendix to this paper will be found a number of tables which may prove of interest to those studying this grade of secondary schools.

I desire in conclusion to express my sincere thanks to my friends, Dr. Gropp and Professor Dr. Emil Hausknecht, for the aid which they were so good as to render to me in my inquiries, and for their kindness in looking through the proofs of this and the preceding articles.

MICHAEL E. SADLER.

APPENDIX I.—*Statistics of Number and Ages of Boys in the Oberrealschule at Charlottenburg in the School Year* 1895–96.

——	Oberrealschule.														Vorschule.						
	IIA.	IIB.		IIIA.		IIIB.		IV.		V.		VI.		Total.	1.		2.		3.		Total.
	—	E.	M.	E.	M.	E.	M.	E.	M.	E.	M.	E.	M. 2.		E.	M.	E.	M.	E.	M.	
Number of boys at the commencement of the summer term, 1896.	6	18	15	19	22	33	40	52	51	57	57	58	60	488	59	59	37	49	26	29	259
Number of boys at the commencement of the winter term, 1896–97.	12	23	22	20	29	38	46	52	53	60	60	60	59	534	59	59	52	34	27	29	260
Number of boys on February 1st, 1897.	12	23	21	21	20	38	45	51	52	60	60	60	58	530	59	58	52	36	27	29	261
Average age on February 1st, 1897.	17·12	16·91	16·30	16·10	15·03	14·75	14·47	13·66	13·20	12·65	12·05	11·07	10·76	—	10·32	9·50	8·90	7·52	7·23	6·74	—

APPENDIX II.—*Religious Denominations of the Parents (School Year* 1896–97).

	Oberrealschule.				Vorschule.			
	Protestants.	Catholics.	Jews.	Dissidents.	Protestants.	Catholics.	Jews.	Dissidents.
At the beginning of the summer term, 1896.	463	9	15	1	246	7	6	—
At the beginning of the winter term, 1896–97.	508	10	15	1	245	9	6	—
On February 1st, 1897 - -	504	10	15	1	245	9	6	—

APPENDIX III.—*Place of Residence of the Pupils (School Year* 1896–97).

	Oberrealschule.			Vorschule.		
	From Charlottenburg.	From beyond.	Foreigners.	From Charlottenburg.	From beyond.	Foreigners.
At the beginning of the summer term, 1896.	387	90	11	246	10	3
At the beginning of the winter term, 1896–97.	424	99	11	239	16	5
On February 1st, 1897 - -	420	99	11	239	16	5

APPENDIX IV.—*Finance.*

Through the kindness of Dr. Gropp, I am able to give a summary of the expenditure on the Oberrealschule and other schools in Charlottenburg. I have drawn up the following tables from the *Stadthaushalts-Etat von Charlottenburg für das Rechnungsjahr*, 1897–98, and the *Erläuterungs-Bericht zum Stadthaushalts-Etat von Charlottenburg* for the same year.

(i.) The first table is a summary of the total educational receipts and expenditure of the municipality for the three years 1895–96, 1896–97, and 1897–98.

Receipts.

	Receipts (in Marks).		
	1895–96.	1896–97.	1897–98.
Realgymnasium, from school fees -	49,886	50,810	63,486
Oberrealschule, from school fees -	52,530	51,800	56,360
Reform school (in course of erection) -	—	—	15,000
Intermediate girls' school (in course of erection).	29,207	28,418	333,222
Bürger-Mädschenschule (in course of erection).	17,514	19,152	17,260
Elementary schools, from school fees of outside scholars, and State grant.	72,750	80,305	95,905
Technical classes and continuation schools, from class fees.	8,809	13,830	14,780
Various - - - -	2,529	2,280	2,680
	233,226	246,595	298,793
(say)	£11,661	£12,378	£14,939

The receipts are (1) from school fees in the higher schools, (2) in the case of the elementary schools, from the State contribution, under laws of June 14, 1888, and March 31, 1889, of 4,250*l.*, and fees from outside children,* and (3) from scholars' fees and contributions from trade guilds, &c., in the case of technical classes and continuation schools.

Expenditure.

	Expenditure (in Marks).		
	1895–96.	1896–97.	1897–98.
Realgymnasium - - -	103,208	110,120	115,520
Oberrealschule - - - -	92,748	96,862	104,813
Erection of reform school - -	—	—	30,000
Intermediate girls' school - -	44,859	51,113	53,942
Bürger-Mädschenschule - -	37,787	35,745	36,120
Elementary schools - - -	764,582	860,837	1,203,312
Schools for defective children - -	12,387	14,350	16,550
Technical classes and continuation schools.	23,439	30,071	39,857
People's library - - -	—	—	15,000
Pensions - - - -	23,974	31,439	41,420
Other expenditure - - -	11,883	13,761	13,309
Add special outlay during year -	3,865	1,264	1,050
	1,118,766	1,245,563	1 670,893
(say)	£55,938	£62,228	£83,544

* The elementary schools are free to the children of families resident in Charlottenburg. Children from outside pay 1*l.* 10*s.* a year. The revenue expected from this source in 1897-98 amounts to 504*l.* The State grants in aid are paid in respect of the elementary schools.

(ii.) The second table, which follows, gives the receipts and expenditure in the case of the Charlottenburg Oberrealschule.

Estimated receipts 1897–98 (in marks), compared with actual receipts 1896–97 :—

School Fees.	1897–98.	1896–97.
	In Marks.	In Marks.
18 scholars at 100 marks (in classes IIA. and I.) - - - - -		
522 scholars at 80 marks (in classes IIB.–VI.)	55,880	51,640
260 scholars at 72 marks (in Vorschule) -		
Less 80 free places at 80 marks - -		
Extra fees for manual instruction - -	480	160
(marks)	56,360	51,800
(say)	£2,818	£2,590

Estimated expenditure 1897–98 (in marks) compared with actual expenditure 1896–97 :—

—	1897–98.	Excess of 1897–98 on 1896–97.
	In Marks.	In Marks.
Salaries (established teachers) - -	90,224	5,810
Assistant teachers and substitutes - -	5,900	400
Roman Catholic religious teaching - -	240	—
Jewish religious teaching - - -	200	50
Management of teachers' library (paid to an oberlehrer).	100	—
Management of pupils' library - -	100	—
Addition to salary of teacher for collection of school fees.	300	—
Addition to school-keeper for cleaning -	300	—
Apparatus and Equipment.		
Teachers' library - - - -	750	150
Pupils' „ - - - -	250	—
Prizes - - - - -	150	—
Maps, globes, and diagrams - - -	200	50
Natural history collection - - -	200	—
Physical collection - - - -	500	300
Chemical „ - - - -	400	250
Drawing appliances, &c. - - -	200	—
Singing and writing instruction - -	200	—
School books for poor scholars - -	150	—
Other expenditure, including furniture, repairs, cleaning gymnasium, and heating.	4,449	—
Total - - (marks)	104,813	7,951
(say)	£5,240	£397

(iii.) The third table, which follows, shows (in marks) the salaries of the teachers in the Oberrealschule for 1897–98. It should be noted that the municipality of Charlottenburg liberally

pays more than the statutory minimum, and that the teachers have a claim to pensions. If a teacher dies leaving a widow and orphans, the latter have a claim to a yearly sum representing the pension which would have been received by the deceased.

—	1897–98.	Excess of 1897–98 over 1896–97.
	In Marks.	In Marks.
Director (including allowance for house) -	7,800	500
Oberlehrer (1) - - - -	5,360	150
„ (2) - - - -	5,060	300
„ (3) - - - -	4,760	—
„ (4) - - - -	4,760	—
„ (5) - - - -	4,460	—
„ (6) - - - -	4,460	900
„ (7) - - - -	3,560	—
„ (8) - - - -	3,560	—
„ (9) - - - -	3,560	150
„ (10) - - - -	3,560	300
„ (11) - - - -	3,335	75
„ (12) - - - -	3,335	75
„ (13) - - - -	3,260	—
„ (14) - - - -	3,260	—
„ (15) - - - -	2,960	2,960
Drawing teacher - - - -	3,132	—
Preparatory school teachers (1) - -	3,732	—
„ „ (2) - -	3,332	—
„ „ (3) - -	3,132	—
„ „ (4) - -	2,932	200
„ „ (5) - -	2,732	—
„ „ (6) - -	2,482	200
School keeper - - - -	1,700	—
Total - - (marks)	90,224	5,810
(say)	£4,511	£290

(iv.) The following summary may be of interest:—

1897–98 Estimate.

Pupils.—Oberrealschule - - - 540
Vorschule - - - 260 } 800

Staff of teachers.—1 Director - - -
15 Oberlehrer - -
1 art master - -
6 preparatory school teachers } 23

Total cost, 104,813 marks ÷ 800 pupils = 131 marks (6*l.* 11*s.*) per scholar.

This is for "maintenance" expenditure only.

(v.) The following table shows the totals of the municipal receipts and expenditure (*a*) on all purposes; (*b*) on education alone for the town of Charlottenburg in the years 1895–96 and

1896–97, and the corresponding estimates for the current financial year 1897–98:—

Year		
1895–96.	1896–97.	1897–98.
A.—Receipts.		
(*a.*) Total Municipal Receipts.		
£261,551	£289,375	£335,530
(*b.*) Of this, from school fees, State grants for elementary education, and local contributions.		
£11,661	£12,327	£14,939
B.—Expenditure.		
(*a.*) Total Municipal Expenditure.		
£246,190	£289,375	£335,530
(*b.*) Of this, on education.		
£55,933	£62,278	£83,544

vi. Original outlay on the educational equipment of the Oberrealschule at Charlottenburg.

(Cf. *Bericht über das Schuljahr*, 1890–91, erstattet von dem Rektor, Dr. Gropp. Charlottenburg. Druck von C. J. Neubelt, Wilmersdorfer Strasse 32.)

	£
(*a.*) Teachers' library - - -	150
(*b.*) Pupils' library - - - -	25
(*c.*) Apparatus for teaching physics -	200
(*d.*) Apparatus for teaching chemistry -	150
(*e.*) Models, &c. for natural history teaching	75
(*f.*) Maps, &c. for geographical teaching -	25
(*g.*) Drawing appliances - - -	25
(*h.*) Requirements for lessons in singing and writing - - - -	15
(*i.*) Sundries - - - -	30
(*k.*) Furniture (for three rooms only) -	185
	880

The apparatus in the covered gymnasium cost about 200*l.*

To the above sum of 880*l.* there should be added for the furnishing of the remainder of the class-rooms, 900*l.*

The cost of the school buildings (irrespective of the value of the site) was about 24,500*l.*

APPENDIX V.—*Instruction in Gymnastics, Singing, and Manual Training.*

Number of boys excused on the ground of a medical certificate during 1896-27 :—

(1.) Altogether, 11 in summer, 15 in winter.

(2.) From certain exercises, 5 in summer, 2 in winter.

In summer, in favourable weather, games were played every Saturday afternoon on an open space near Westend. Out of 438 boys, 320 boys took part in them. Swimming was practised in the Kochsee by 176 boys from the school and seven from the preparatory.

Boys (in classes IV. to I.) were formed into a choir and practised three- and four-part songs and anthems.

At Easter, 1895, a class was opened by the drawing-master for manual training in cardboard work, and at Easter, 1896, for wood carving. The number of boys attending was about 20 in each subject.

M. E. S.

APPENDIX VI.—*Form of Application for a Free Place for a Pupil in the Municipal Oberrealschule at Charlottenburg.*

Antrag auf Schulgeldfreiheit.

1.	2.		3.				4.		5.		6.		7.	8.
Antragsteller: Name, Stand, und Wohnung.	Vorname.	Schule und Klasse.	Angabe aller vorhandenen Kinder nach.				Schulgeld zahlende Kinder.		Kinder, für welche im Vorjahre bereits Schulgeldfreiheit gewährt ist.		Kinder, für welche anker den in Rubrik 2 bezeichneten Kindern noch Schulgeldfreiheit beantragt ist.		Gutachten des Schuldirigenten.	Gutachten des Referenten.
	des Kindes, für welches Schulgeldfreiheit nachgesucht wird.		No.	Namen.	Alter.	Schule, welche sie besuchen.	No.	Name.	No.	Name.	No.	Name.		
							der Rubrik 3.							
Zahst jährliche Steuern: Grund-	Gebäude-	Gewerbe-	Staats-Einkommen.											

Bemerfungen: Anträge, welche nicht in den Rubriken 1—6 gewissenhaft ausgefüllt find, finden keine Berücksichtigung. Für jedes Kind, für welches Schulgeldfreiheit erbeten wird, ist ein besonderer Antrag zu stellen.

A.—III.
Formular No. 14. Antrag auf Schulgeldfreiheit.

The Prussian Elementary School Code.

It has been suggested that a translation of the regulations now in force in Prussian Elementary Schools might prove useful. In 1872 new regulations, issued by Dr. Falk, who was then Minister of Education, introduced many important changes into the existing system, and form the basis of the actual organisation of elementary education in Prussia at the present time. The extent of these changes is clearly shown in Mr. Perry's interesting book on German Elementary Education.* Reference should also be made to Mr. A. Sonnenschein's valuable "Educational Codes of Foreign Countries" (Swan Sonnenschein, 1889).

These "General Regulations" (Allgemeine Bestimmungen) are divided into four parts; the first deals with the Elementary School, the second with the Mittelschule; the third with the Preparatory Training School, and the last with Training Colleges. An excellent translation of the last two parts is to be found in Mr. Perry's book, while the following pages contain a translation of the first.

The Normal Elementary Schools contain six classes, but where the numbers are large, the lowest class is often divided into two divisions, thus giving the school really seven classes. There exists in many quarters the desire to add yet another class, so that there should be one class for each year of the school life, which lasts in Prussia from 6 to 14.

General Regulations concerning the Organisation, Duties, and Aims of the Prussian Elementary Schools.

1. *The Normal Types of Elementary Schools.*

Normal types are (i.) the elementary school with several classes; (ii.) the school with two teachers; (iii.) the school with one teacher, which may either be a one-class elementary school or a half-day school.

2. *The One-class Elementary School.*

In the one-class elementary school children of every school age are taught simultaneously in one and the same place by the same master. Their number must not exceed 80.

In the one-class school the children of the lower division receive, as a rule, 20 hours' instruction a week, those of the middle and upper divisions 30, including gymnastics for boys and needlework for girls.

* "Report on German Elementary Schools and Training Colleges," by C. C. Perry. London: Rivington, 1887.

3. *The Half-day School.*

In cases where the number of children exceeds 80, or where the schoolroom is not large enough to accommodate a smaller number even, and the conditions do not permit the appointment of a second teacher, and in places where other reasons make it necessary, a half-day school may be organised with the consent of the Government, the classes of which receive altogether 32 hours' instruction in the week.

4. *The School with Two Teachers.*

If two teachers are appointed the instruction must be given in two separate classes. If the number of the children exceeds 120, a third class must be organised. In such a school the third class receives 12 hours' instruction a week, the second 24, and the first 28.

5. *Elementary Schools with several Classes.*

In schools with three or more classes (so far as they do not come under paragraph 4) the children of the lower division receive 22 hours' instruction a week, those of the middle division 28, those of the upper division 30 to 32.

6. *The Separation of the Sexes.*

For schools with several classes a separation of the sexes in the upper classes is desirable. Where only two teachers are appointed, an arrangement with two (or three) graduated classes is to be preferred to two one-class schools each confined to a single sex.

7. *Union of Small Villages in a common School District.*

Where in one locality several one-class schools exist an effort is to be made to unite them in one school.

8. *The Arrangement and Equipment of the Schoolroom.*

The schoolroom must allow a surface measurement of at least 6 square metres for each child, and must be well lighted and airy, have good ventilation, afford protection against the weather and be sufficiently provided with window curtains. The school desks and benches must be sufficient in number and so arranged that all children can sit and work without injury to their health. The desks are to be provided with ink bottles. There must also be a sufficient number of pegs for caps, towels, and overcoats; a portable and a fixed blackboard, a master's desk or table with lock, a cupboard for books, note-books, chalk and sponge.

9. *The indispensable Appliances.*

For a complete organisation of the instruction it is necessary to have :—

(1.) A copy of each book used in the school.
(2.) A globe.
(3.) A wall map of the province (county).
(4.) „ „ Germany.
(5.) „ „ Palestine.
(6.) Some pictures for the object lessons.
(7.) Letters of the alphabet, on wood or cardboard, capable of being seen at some distance, for use in the first instruction in reading.
(8.) A violin.
(9.) A ruler and pair of compasses.
(10.) A counting machine.

In Protestant schools in addition :—

(11.) A Bible.
(12.) A copy of the hymn book used in the parish.

In schools with several classes these appliances are to be suitably supplemented.

10. *Registers and Lists.*

The schoolmaster has to keep an account of the school progress, a list of pupils, an account of the teaching (a record of the instruction given) and a list of absences. He must also keep the time-table and the distribution of home work in the schoolroom.

11. *School Books and Note Books.*

The following are included in the equipment of the pupil of an elementary school with one or two teachers :—

(*a.*) Books :—
  (1.) Reading book.
  (2.) Note book for arithmetic.
  (3.) Song book. As well as the books for religious instruction.
(*b.*) A slate, with pencil, sponge, ruler, and compasses.
(*c.*) Note books :—
  (1.) Rough note book.
  (2.) Copy book.
  (3.) Note book for spelling and essays.
  (4.) (In the higher divisions) A drawing book.

In elementary schools with several classes the pupils may be expected to provide themselves with small text books for the instruction in "*Realien*,"* as well with the various parts of a graduated reader and an atlas. They have also to keep separate note books for each branch of the instruction.

* The "*Realien*" include history, geography, object lessons and natural science.

12. *The Divisions of the Elementary School.*

The elementary school, even the one-class school, is divided into three divisions, corresponding to the age and different degrees of development of the children. Where a school has four classes, two belong to the middle division, if six, each division has two.

13. *The Branches of Instruction.*

The branches of instruction in the elementary school are religious knowledge, the German language (speaking, reading, and writing), arithmetic and elementary geometry, drawing, history, geography, Nature knowledge, with gymnastics for the boys and needlework for girls.

In the one-class school the hours apportioned to the different branches in the various divisions is as follows:—

	Lower Division.	Middle Division.	Upper Division.
Religious knowledge	4	5	5
German	11	10	8
Arithmetic	4	4	5
Geometry			
Drawing	—	1	2
"Realien"	—	6	6
Singing	1	2	2
Gymnastics or Needlework	—	2	2
Total	20	30	30

In a school with several classes:—

	Lower Division.	Middle Division.	Upper Division.
Religious knowledge	4	4	4
German	11	8	8
Arithmetic	4	4	4
Geometry	—	—	2
Drawing	—	2	2
"Realien"	—	6	6 (8)
Singing	1	2	2
Gymnastics or Needlework	2	2	2
Total	22	28	30 (32)

In the half-day school, and in the school with two teachers and three classes, this plan is altered according to the needs of the case.

14. *The Catholic Religious Instruction.*

With regard to the Catholic religious instruction, the existing regulations remain in force, with such modification as results from the change in the number of hours.

15. *Aim of the Protestant Religious Instruction.*

The duty of the Protestant religious instruction is to lead the children to a comprehension of the Bible and the creed of the community, that the children may be able to read the Bible for themselves, and to take an active share in the life and church services of the community.

16. *Sacred History.*

The introduction of the children to the Bible takes the form of instruction in Bible history, and the explanation of connected portions of the Bible, in particular the portions appointed for the Gospels and Epistles of the church year.

Few stories are to be told to the children of the lower division: from the Old Testament, principally those from Genesis, and also from the earlier years of Moses and David; out of the New Testament, the birth, childhood, death, and resurrection of Jesus Christ, and any stories from his life especially suitable to their childish understanding.

In the course of further instruction the pupils hear in systematic order the chief stories out of all periods of sacred history of the Old and New Testaments, and on this basis receive a connected presentation of Scripture history, in which the life of Jesus is distinctly prominent, and in which the founding and earliest expansion of the Christian Church is included. With this history is connected that of the Introduction of Christianity into Germany, the German Reformation, and information about the life of the Protestant Church at the present day.

In schools with several classes this instruction is to be extended, particularly with regard to the church history.

17. *Bible Reading.*

To the instruction in Scripture history in the upper division is added the explanation of connected portions of Scripture chosen from the Prophets and poetical books of the Bible (particularly the Psalms) and from the New Testament.

The amount of material to be so treated and the selection of the same is to be determined according to the circumstances of each school.

18. *Gospels and Epistles.*

On Saturday the Gospel and Epistle for the following Sunday are to be read to the children, and a short explanation given. They are not to be learnt by heart.

19. *The Catechism.*

The introduction to the creed of the community is made through the explanation of the catechism in use, with illustrations drawn from Bible stories, texts, and hymns or verses of hymns; but all overburdening of the memory is to be avoided.

As a general rule, separate hours of instruction in the catechism are to be given in schools with one or two teachers in the upper division only; in other schools at the earliest in the middle classes. At the most two hours a week are to be devoted to this branch.

So far as special circumstances do not make alterations necessary, in those places where Luther's Catechism is in use, only the first three parts fall within the work of the elementary school, and to the lower division is assigned the learning by heart of the Ten Commandments and the Lord's Prayer, to the middle division the two first parts of the small catechism, with Luther's explanations, to the upper division the third part.

The explanation of the two remaining parts is left to the instruction before confirmation.

20. *Hymns.*

In the religious instruction in all divisions recourse is to be had to hymns. In the lower division single verses, by preference, should be treated; in the other divisions whole hymns as well. Such treatment is not to be confined to those hymns which are to be learnt by heart, and in the choice of hymns attention is to be paid to modern and most recent ones.

Where no special school hymn book is in use, the text of the hymns will be taken from the hymn book used in the church services.

Not more than 20 hymns are to be chosen for repetition, which in content and form are suitable to the understanding of the children. The explanation of the hymn and practice in sensible recitation must precede the learning by heart.

21. *Prayers.*

Even in the lower division the children learn some short, easy morning, midday, and evening prayers. In the upper division the order of the church service is explained to them; but no general prayers or other portions of the Liturgy are to be learnt by heart.

22. *The Instruction in German.*

Instruction in German includes practice in talking, reading, and writing. These different sides of the instruction must in all divisions be in organic relation with one another, and, as far as possible, make equal progress.

23. *Practice in Oral Expression.*

Practice in oral expression requires no separate instruction. It prepares the way for instruction in writing and reading, and accompanies it in its further development.

The simplest and best known objects form the material in the lower division, the pictures in the middle, and the pieces in the reading book in the upper division.

Its formal aim is, in gradual progression, to enable the pupil to pronounce correctly and clearly each single word, and to give free expression to his thoughts in a simple sentence; the power of sure and correct expression in compound sentences, avoiding the most common mistakes in forms of words and formation of sentences, and, lastly, the ability to reproduce freely and correctly imparted knowledge, and to arrange and clearly state his own thoughts.

24. *Instruction in Writing and Reading.*

Instruction in writing and reading is to be according to the method in use in the training college of the district. The method of learning the letters is to be excluded.

The aim is, in the lower division, to enable the children to read correctly connected reading pieces, and not only to copy but also to write for themselves short sentences; in the middle division, to read whole reading pieces, in prose and verse, in Latin and German characters, without stumbling and intelligently, to write correctly a simple dictation, and to reproduce unaided a reading piece of simple form and content. In the upper division the pupils are to be led to read at sight easily and with expression harder reading pieces, of which the content is not too remote from the circle of their ideas, to write dictations of this kind without a mistake, and to reproduce correctly longer reading pieces.

Special hours are to be assigned for writing in the middle and upper divisions of a school with one or two teachers, and in the middle classes of larger schools; in the upper classes of such schools it can take the form of home work. The aim of the instruction is the acquirement of a neat, clear, graceful handwriting in all, even in quickly-written work.

The results of a good instruction should be plainly visible in the pupils' note books.

To be recommended as context of the copies are popular proverbs; good and appropriate samples of business letters and forms.

25. *Instruction in German Grammar.*

In the upper classes of schools with several classes, special hours are assigned to instruction and practice in German grammar; in the schools with one or two teachers it is combined with the rest of the language instruction.

The aim of the instruction for the middle division is a knowledge of the simple sentence and the simplest ideas of accidence; for the upper division the expanded sentence and more thorough instruction in accidence and formation of words.

26. *The Reading Book.*

The groundwork of all instruction in German is the reading book. Where possible, the whole book is to be worked through. The reading book is not only to further the attainment of skill in reading, but also to lead to the understanding of the contents of the piece. The pieces are so to be selected that about 30 are treated in the year.

Suitable poetical pieces (in small schools particularly the texts of songs) are to be committed to memory in all three divisions after they have been commented on.

In the upper classes of larger schools the reading book is to be used to give the children examples of the chief works of patriotic (popular) poetry, and some information about the national poets, but only those since the Reformation.

The selection of the reading book to be introduced is to be made from those which have a popular character, and which by the whole of their contents promote the educative purpose of the school.

And among these those deserve the preference which are correct in form, and in the historical and scientific selections are not the original productions of the editors, but specimens from the best popular works of great writers in those branches, and which are free from all political and religious bias. For schools attended by children of different denominations, as far as possible, only such reading books are to be chosen which have really no denominational character. In books already in use the pieces denominational in character are to be assigned to the religious instruction.

27. *Language Instruction in Schools attended by Children of different Nationalities.*

With regard to the schools in which the children, or some of them, speak another language than German, the regulations issued in the past, or now to be issued, are to be put in force.

28. *Instruction in Arithmetic.*

In the lower divisions operations with concrete and abstract numbers between 1 and 100 are learnt and practised, in the middle division the same operations with unlimited numbers, also problems in averages, factors, reduction, and simple rule of three; the arithmetic for the upper division includes fractions (for which suitable preparation must be made in the other divisions) their application to calculations of everyday life, and a thorough treatment of decimal fractions.

In the larger schools this amount is extended in these everyday calculations to problems of a harder kind, in decimals to the extraction of square root.

In the lower division, in schools with only one or two teachers as far as possible, in other schools regularly, all calculations are to be done in the head. At the beginning of a new rule in all divisions calculations in the head precede those on the board. In practical applications the relation to everyday life is always to be kept in view; consequently examples with large and many-figured numbers are to be avoided, and the problems made to correspond to the actual condition of things.

By means of these problems the pupils are to be made acquainted with the existing system of weights, measures, and coinage.

Arithmetic is to be regarded in all divisions as practice in clear thinking and correct speaking; still, the ultimate aim is to enable the pupils to solve unaided, surely and quickly, the problems set them.

In all schools the instruction is to be based on a collection of examples for the pupil, to which the master has the key.

29. *The Instruction in Geometry.*

The set portion of geometry includes the line (straight, equal, unequal, parallel), the angle and its kinds, the triangle, quadrilateral, regular figures, the circle and its lines, and regular solids.

In larger schools lines and angles are more fully treated, and, in addition, the equality and similarity of figures.

Instruction in geometry is to be connected both with arithmetic and drawing. While in the latter the pupils learn to correctly observe and represent the forms of lines, surfaces and solids, in the former they learn to operate certainly and intelligently with their measurements, to calculate the length of lines, the extent of surfaces, and the volume of solids.

30. *Drawing.*

In instruction in drawing all children are to be occupied simultaneously and similarly, and by constant practice of hand and eye are to be so trained that they are able, with the help of ruler, scale, and compasses, to copy pattern figures on a given reduced or magnified scale, and to represent geometrical views of objects of simple shape on a given scale, *e.g.*, the furniture of the room, garden surfaces, houses, churches, and other solids which present straight edges and large surfaces.

Where this end is attained, specially gifted children may be set to draw from copies.

A special regulation is issued as to drawing in larger schools.

31. *Instruction in Realien.*

In the instruction in the Realien the reading book is to be used to give life, completeness, and repetition to the material which

the teacher, after careful preparation, presents freely and through direct observation. In larger schools special text-books may be used as well. No use is to be made of dictations; forbidden, too, is the purely mechanical committal to memory of dates, lists of kings and queens, names of countries and towns, numbers of inhabitants, names and characteristics of plants, numbers of size and relations in natural science. In geography and Nature knowledge the instruction begins with observation, which in geography is attained by means of the globe and map; in the descriptive sciences by samples of the objects to be discussed or by good illustrations; in natural science, at least in the larger schools, by experiment.

Throughout, even in larger schools, the material is to be gradually extended, proceeding from the easier to the more difficult, from the nearer to the further off.

32. *History.*

From the earlier German history, and from the earlier history of Brandenburg, certain biographies are to be selected; from the time of the Thirty Years' War and the Great Elector the chain of such biographies is to be continued unbroken. So far as the children are able to grasp it, the chief features of the progress in civilisation are also to be dealt with.

The fulness and the number of the biographies is determined by the character of the school and the amount of time devoted to this branch of the instruction.

33. *Geography.*

Geographical instruction is to begin with the surrounding of the home and school; it then deals with Germany, and with the outlines of general geography; shape and motion of the earth, causes of day and night and of the seasons, the zones, the five oceans, the five continents, the chief state and cities of the world, the greatest mountains and rivers.

The quantity of the material will be determined by the character of the school; but in working out a course of studies it is better to limit the extent than to sacrifice the clearness of the instruction, and to allow it to degenerate into a mere list of names.

34. *Object Lessons in Natural History, Botany, &c.*

This branch of the instruction includes, besides a description of the structure and life of the human body, that of the native rocks, plants, and animals, and of foreign ones, the chief beasts of prey, animals and plants of the east, those cultivated plants of which the products are in daily use in our country (cotton plant, tea plant, coffee tree, sugar cane). Of native objects those are to be made particularly prominent, which arouse special

interest (1) through the services which they render to men (*e.g.*, domestic animals, birds, silkworm, corn, spinning plants, fruit trees, salt, coal); (2) through the harm which they do to men (poisonous plants); (3) through the peculiarity of their life or way of living (*e.g.*, butterflies, trichinæ, tapeworm, bee, ant).

In larger schools such objects may not only be increased in number, but also systematically arranged and more exhaustively treated as to their use in industry. Everywhere the aim of the instruction should be to accustom children to an attentive observation and to bring them up to a thoughtful consideration of nature.

35. *Natural Science.*

In this instruction in a school with only one or two teachers the children are to led to an approximate understanding of those phenomena which daily surround them.

In larger schools this instruction is to be extended to include the most important principles of the equilibrium and movement of bodies, of sound, light, heat, magnetism, and electricity, so that the children are able to explain the commoner natural phenomena and the most usual machines.

36. *Singing.*

Anthems are to be practised alternately with popular songs. The aim should be to secure that each child can sing not only in chorus, but also alone correctly and surely, and that when he leaves he takes with him a sufficient number of anthems and songs (the words of the latter to be perfectly known) as a lasting possession.

37. *Gymnastics.*

This instruction is given in the middle and upper divisions two hours a week, according to the regulation of October 8, 1868. It is desirable that a preliminary course should be instituted in the lower division.

38. *Needlework.*

Needlework should be practised, where possible, from the middle division upwards two hours a week.

A. E. TWENTYMAN.

The Continuation Schools (Fortbildungsschulen) in Saxony.

Synopsis of Contents.

Definition and Number of Continuation Schools.
Their History—derived from Sunday Schools.
The abolition and restoration of compulsory attendance.
The Organisation.
Legal regulations concerning attendance.
Need of compulsion and arguments in its favour.
The support derived from the social conditions of Saxony.
Governing body.
Buildings used.
Number of children.
Number and character of teachers engaged.
Time of instruction—difference between town and country.
The connexion between the schools and the trades of the pupils.
Finance—fees, salaries of teachers, expense of schools.
The Instruction.
Compulsory subjects and optional.
Religious instruction.
The syllabus in Saxony.
Advantage of connexion between Continuation and Primary Schools.
Variation in the Code :—
(*a.*) According to the needs of the locality.
(*b.*) According to the trades of the pupils.
Arithmetic and Composition—their practical nature.
Instruction on the Nature of Business (Geschäftskunde).
Instruction :—
(*a.*) On the Locality.
(*b.*) On the Rights and Duties of a Citizen.
Drawing.
The Discipline.
Extent of the authority of the school over its pupils.
Continuation Schools as a centre for social life.
Results of the system : Its effect on commercial progress.

The Continuation Schools (Fortbildungsschulen) in Saxony.

The wide term "continuation school" (Fortbildungsschule) needs some slight definition at the outset, if the purpose and scope of this report are to be properly grasped. It would be but natural (were the word left unqualified) for the thoughts of English readers to turn instinctively to one special class of continuation schools, for which Saxony is justly famous, and to which much attention in this country has been recently directed, viz., the technical school or gewerbliche Fortbildungs- und Fach- schule.

By the side of this, however, there exists another class of school less noticed, but not less important, the allgemeine Fortbildungsschule.

As the name indicates, the characteristic of this institution is that it is non-technical. It is not confined to the members of one particular trade, but attended by all alike. The subjects of instruction are in like manner general, such as reading, arithmetic, writing. So far they answer roughly to our evening continuation classes, but there is one all-important point of difference.

Certain States (notably Saxony, Saxe-Weimar, Saxe-Coburg-Gotha, and Hesse) have made attendance at their schools compulsory during a certain number of years for all boys who have just left an elementary school at the age of 14, and who are not attending a "continuation school" of the former class. They are thus *continuation* schools in the strictest sense of the word, for their work joins *directly* on to that of the primary school and is not a later supplement to it. They far outnumber, as might be expected, the technical schools. In 1890 there were in the Kingdom of Saxony about 1,900 such institutions, containing 77,808 boys, while the number of technical schools was about 150. Saxe-Weimar (where, thanks to the exertions of Herr Pache, statistics of a later date are procurable) had in 1895–6, 452 allgemeine Fortbildungsschulen with 5,152 scholars, an average of one school to every 709 inhabitants; in this State there are 26 technical schools, with about 2,000 pupils. It is clear, therefore, that a large majority of the population comes under the working of the non-technical institutions; and the magnitude of the plan on which the system is fashioned would by itself render desirable an inquiry into its purposes and the influences which it exercises on social culture.

Its History.

The origin of continuation schools in Germany lies very far back in the history of the country and of the Church; for it was on the Church that they, like so many other educational institutions, were for some hundreds of years essentially dependent.

The need of some instruction of the young in religious truths, after they had started on their work in life, was felt in the 16th century. In 1569 the Bishop of Samland, for example, ordered the formation of classes for such teaching, and it continued to be the practice for the pastor of the parish to hold them on Sundays either in the afternoon or immediately after the morning service. The place of instruction was the church, and, through the day on which they took place, the name of "Sunday schools" was commonly given them.

The next step in their evolution was the introduction at a much later date of secular subjects. Towards the end of the 18th century the primary schools had received notable extensions of their domain. At the same time, the decay of the handicrafts and the improvement of farming methods, the increase in commerce, the beginnings of the "great industry," caused a higher value to be set upon intelligence; and despite the improvements effected, the insufficiency of the ordinary schooling (particularly in the agricultural districts) was keenly felt. As a consequence, several states (Bavaria, Prussia, and Saxony) availed themselves of the Sunday schools, and provided additional instruction through them in such subjects as reading, writing, and arithmetic. So impressed were some states with their importance that compulsion was exercised on the young men for some years of their life; the age at which they were first released from attendance was usually 18, but in Hohenzollern it extended to 20. And this compulsion was no idle threat. In Bavaria, for example, a marriage could not be entered into by anyone unless he first produced a certificate that he had gone through the regular course at a "Sunday school."

In the early part of the 19th century the schools maintained a prosperous existence. About 1820 in Saxony, though they were not compulsory, they were founded and supported by all classes, particularly by the corporations of towns and trade associations. The school law of June 6, 1835, declared their object to be the repetition and the widening of the knowledge already won; while, so far as opportunity allowed, subjects should be introduced which could necessarily have no place in the Volksschule, *e.g.*, the knowledge of the German Constitution and law, and the worth and profit of new discoveries in industry. The magistrates and authorities of a district were put in possession of the power to enforce attendance, so far as pressure was necessary.

The next 30 years saw a great change. By 1860 the economic revolution was completed, and the cry on all sides was for "freedom" in industry. Compulsory attendance at the elementary schools also was by this time universal. The education there obtained was naturally considered quite sufficient, and lent colour to the assertion that the Sunday school had become unnecessary. This plausible argument, backed by the strong feeling for the liberty of the individual, which in Germany, as in England, was then the root-idea both in economics and politics,

caused all continuation schools to fall into great unpopularity among masters and men alike. In 1859 the power previously given to the authorities was withdrawn in Saxony, as it had been in other states. The inevitable result followed. During the next 10 years many of the schools were closed, many led a precarious existence, and but very few maintained, either in numbers or efficiency, the standard they had reached. The state of the case may be gathered from a speech made in 1871 by Herr Braünlich, President of the Conference of Elementary Teachers from Saxe-Weimar and the Thuringian districts. He is describing the condition of the Fortbildungsschulen during the past 20 years.

"In Weimar we had a school in 1850 and onwards which was numerously attended, and which was undoubtedly the source of great benefits to the town. . . . . Now came the new laws concerning industry, and compulsion was abolished. Then our school died. No one attended any longer, for all our young men thought they had learnt quite enough. Upon this the district council formulated another ordinance, and though they could not *compel* they *urged* the young men of 14 to 18 years of age, who were willing to help as pupils in the re-establishment of the school, to report themselves to the authorities. What was the result of this appeal, backed though it was by cogent arguments? There reported themselves for the first class, one; for the second, one: two scholars in all."

It was reserved for a great national crisis to re-kindle educational enthusiasm. The war of 1870 taught the Germans, as well as the French, the vital importance of universal education; and the feeling, reinforced by the growth of commerce and the necessity for more intelligence in the workman, took shape in the foundation of a "Society for the Extension of National Education." One of the first points to which attention was directed was the system of continuation schools. Indignation at their decay was no longer confined to a few ardent reformers. A storm of petitions from every class—commercial and agricultural, teachers of both primary and secondary schools—poured in upon the Governments, begging for the restoration of such schools. The fruits of the agitation in Saxony were soon seen.

On the 26th April 1873, a law was passed making attendance once more compulsory. Baden, Saxe-Weimar, Hesse, Saxe-Coburg-Gotha followed suit. In 1875, the new continuation schools were opened, and for a period of over 20 years up to the present day they have continued firmly established. That they have become a distinct member of the educational system may be judged not only from their numbers but even more from the interest they evoke. There is now in Germany a large society of "The Friends and Teachers of German Continuation Schools" with a newspaper of its own devoted to forwarding the extension and improvement of the system, while in Leipzig it has begun to erect a Fortbildungs-Museum, with an exhibition of apparatus used in the schools and a library. This widespread support

which it now receives has not been won without labour. Many difficulties undreamt of at the time of the proposal of the law were encountered: many alterations, particularly in the large towns, have been made both in the curriculum and the organisation. In a description of the system as it at present exists, I shall try to indicate these dangers and the methods adopted to overcome them.

Organisation.

To begin with the most essential and most striking feature, the system of compulsory attendance, some quotations from the laws on the subject will convey the main outlines of the extent and nature of their requirements.

The *Imperial* law on the "Regulation of Industry" of the 1st June 1891, contains the following provisions:—

"§ 120. The masters in any branch of industry are bound hereby in the case of their workers under the age of 18 who attend an institution recognised by the authorities of their district or their State as a continuation school to allow them the time fixed as necessary for such institution by the authorities.

"Through the ordinance of a district council or any wider communal body, attendance at a continuation school may be made obligatory for all male workers under the age of 18. In the same way proper regulations may be made to secure the execution of such an ordinance. In particular, regulations may be passed to ensure *regular* attendance and to determine the duties of parents or employers in this respect, and notices may be issued, by which organisation in the continuation school and a proper relation of the scholars to it may be assured.

"From the compulsory attendance based on such an ordinance are exempted only those persons who attend another continuation or technical school, provided that the instruction given in such school be recognised by the higher authorities as a complete equivalent for that given in the non-technical continuation school (allgemeine Fortbildungsschule).

"§ 150. A breach of section 120 of this law is punishable by a fine not exceeding 20 marks, or in case of non-payment of such fine by imprisonment for a term not exceeding three days."

While in most parts of Prussia the question of compulsion is left as provided in the Act to the local council (Gemeinderath), in Saxony it is regulated by State law. § 3 and § 4 of the law regulating the system of elementary education (April 26, 1873) state:—

"§ 3. To the primary school system belong—

"(*a.*) Both lower and higher elementary schools.

"(*b.*) Continuation (evening or Sunday) schools.

"§ 4. All boys leaving the elementary school are hereby required to attend a continuation school for three years, unless their further instruction is provided for by some other approved means.

"§ 5. Parents and guardians are required to keep their children to regular attendance and to afford them the necessary time. In the case of unexcused or improper absence, the proper authorities may, on report of the school managers (Schulvorstand), punish the parents, guardians, masters, or employers of such pupils (if the fault of such absence be proved to be theirs) by a fine not exceeding 30 marks, and, in the case of non-payment, by the term of imprisonment provided in § 150 of the Imperial Law.

"Similar punishments will be enforced in the case of unnecessary delay in the entry of a boy to the continuation school, or of any steps on the part of the parents, &c., which may offend against the authority of the teacher or the order of the school, *e.g.*, entering a class-room without permission, abuse of the teachers, especially in presence of a scholar, &c. . . ."

To show the strictness with which these regulations are enforced, some statements as to reasons for exemption may be added.

Proper excuses for absence are:—

(*a.*) Attendance at the other kind of continuation school (a "technical" school in the strict sense), provided that the standard reached by the boy in general education is the average for his age.

(*b.*) *Regular attendance* at a middle or higher grade elementary school, up to the completion of the fifteenth year of the scholar's age, subject to the same provision.

(*c.*) Only sickness of the scholar or infectious disease in his house always constitutes a valid excuse.

(*d.*) In exceptional cases the board of management in each school (Schulvorstand) can free the scholar from attendance; as an excuse under this head exceptional ability and maturity of a pupil may be accepted. The decision in this case as to the proper standard of education having been reached is to be made by the teacher in conjunction with the local inspector or director.

Every case of exceptional dispensation must be reported by the board of management to the district inspector (Bezirks-schulinspektor).

A special note which stamps the genuineness of these ordinances is added in § 32.

"It is the duty of the board of management in each school to see that no scholar withdraws from the instruction. Such withdrawal should only be permitted when really urgent grounds are assigned for it. *Business at home or trade employment of any kind is never to be accepted as an urgent ground.*"

Every school keeps a register of attendances. In the case of absence, the teacher fills up a form of reminder, which in large schools is laid in the director's room; should no excuse be put forward, inquiries are made through the school servant,

who is told off for that purpose; and finally the case is brought before the board of management.

It is not surprising, therefore, that the regularity of attendance is very good. Herr Pache, director of the four continuation schools in Leipzig, containing 2,000 pupils, told me that the average attendance reached 90 per cent., and that in one class during a half year only one case of absence was reported.

The system may claim to present the first essential mark of success in any institution; it has existed for over 20 years, and to all appearance will exist for many more. The question, however, as to the grounds put forward for compulsion, and how far the purposes of such an institution could be fulfilled without it, is a natural one to raise, and the answer is not without its interest.

The primary aim of the continuation school in Saxony is to establish a certain minimum standard of culture throughout the whole people, and compulsion is rightly regarded as the sole means of securing this particular end. Voluntary attendance brings only those who are actuated by special zeal for knowledge; and though the teacher can desire no better pupils, such scholars must always be few. Above all, they will be few among the classes that it is most wished to reach. "Boys of the poorer classes cannot be expected," says Herr Pache "at the age of 14, "when just free from the elementary school, to see by their "own unaided intelligence the advantages of continning or "reviving their knowledge." They come from homes which have no hereditary respect for learning, and but little foresight, perhaps, even in worldly matters. "If the great majority of "them be left alone they will never again open a book, write "a composition, or work a single sum which is not forced upon "them."

The experience, again, from 1859–70, which has been already described, was sufficient to prove that any voluntary system would not influence half of the population. Yet the circumstances of the present day — such is the argument of the advocates of compulsion—imperatively demand a far wider range for education than ever before.

In the first place many children are bound to leave the elementary school without having attained the standard of knowledge which a child of ordinary abilities should win by the age of 14. Illness, or mental slowness, may have stood in their way. It is the part of a continuation school to bring these backward pupils up to the mark, and save by compulsion they cannot be reached.

In the second place, the growth of trade, the improvements in manufactures on the one hand, the importance of the mass of the people in the government on the other, both demand an increased intelligence and a wider knowledge; and such knowledge can no longer be confined to a few; it must be made universal, as universal as work and the right of voting; and

continuation schools alone can supply this defect, otherwise irremediable.

The Volksschule, it is obvious, is not competent to supply the *kind* of knowledge needed for either of these purposes. Its function is to give only that *general* knowledge (without reference to particular needs or callings) which forms the presupposition of all specialised study. It cannot, and should not, try to play the part of instructor in any technical sciences. It has neither the time to spare in its eight years course, nor the right to neglect its own business of laying the foundations soundly.

Neither can it fill the wants of the young man who is soon to pass into a full citizen. It is clear that for the duties of citizenship to be properly performed in a modern state, some instruction in the constitution, the laws, the method of making and altering them, the complexity of some of the questions at issue, is requisite. At the age of a scholar in the primary school, there is neither the general knowledge nor, what is far more important, the experience of life and practical work, to enable him to appreciate such teaching. But at 15 or 16 years of age he has become a working member in the organisation of industry; he hears political questions daily discussed among his fellow workmen, and recognising that he will soon be in the same position of power as they, his interests are more easily awakened on this subject than on any other. Here also we may find a fitting sphere for the continuation school, and above all for a *compulsory* continuation school.

Last, the years from 14 to 17 are, for the growth of character, the most critical in a boy's life. He passes into new surroundings, and is for the first time exposed to the temptations of the world about him. In Germany these temptations for a boy of the working classes are even greater than in England. Home life is not by any means such a potent influence, nor does any religious organisation in Saxony (to state a recognised fact) possess the same strength and the same power in the moulding of character as many of our own religious bodies. With these circumstances may be mentioned the decay of the old system of apprenticeship, under which the employer was to some extent made responsible for the general behaviour of the employé; the magnitude of modern industry and the factory system have withdrawn that safeguard. It is, therefore, held as necessary that some guidance through these difficult years should be lent to the youth, and it is the aim of the continuation schools to fulfil this important and burdensome task.

The ground, therefore, on which the system of continuation schools is based may be summed up as the necessity for a wider training on certain sides of life, both intellectual and moral; and the principle dictating the use of compulsion is in like manner the necessity that such training should be *universal*. German writers frankly take up the position that in no sphere of human activity is compulsion more inevitable than in educa-

tion; for the essential difficulty of education in the case of boyhood and early youth lies here: that the pupil is to be induced to go through a process of training, the full value of which he cannot possibly appreciate till he has reached the end. A few exceptionally intelligent youths may be farsighted enough to welcome any opportunities extended to them; but it is idle to expect that the majority will possess the spontaneous energy to overcome the initial hardships when the benefits to be won are hidden from their view. The exceptions may be safely left to take care of themselves. It is the sick, not the whole, who need and must be made to have a physician.

It is, I believe, their firm grasp of this view which has led the middle and upper classes in Saxony to uphold compulsory continuation schools with but little wavering in decision. At the same time it would be idle to deny that there are conditions present in German life which render such a scheme far more easy of achievement than it could be in some other countries. It is by this date unnecessary to dwell on the characteristic which the late Mr. Matthew Arnold continually emphasises in his reports on German education—their regard for State action. As will have been gathered from the sketch of the history of continuation schools, compulsion there is no new thing; it is but a return to old usage, and in all provinces of life the intervention of the State has, rightly or wrongly, come to be looked upon as needing no apology.

But by far the most important agent in effecting the quiet acceptance of the laws already quoted is the system of universal conscription. The working-classes are accustomed both to the sacrifice of their time and to submission to authority in their military service; and therefore to be called upon to give up some hours a week for education is looked upon as but a light thing by a man who knows he will soon have to put aside his trade for three years. This trained docility, so to speak, and passive acquiescence in compulsion, even at the age of 15 and 16, naturally impress an English observer most forcibly; he expects to hear continuation schools denounced, especially by the working men, as an infringement of liberty, or looked upon as a grievous burden hardly to be borne. Yet so much have custom and military service effected, that no witness can doubt, in spite of the occasional protests which may be heard, the thorough harmony of a compulsory system of continuation schools with the institutions and spirit of the German nation. Supported as it is by reason among the educated, the unconscious influence of social habit has made it palatable among the poorer classes.

Of the general advantages and disadvantages implied in such an attitude of mind towards education, this report need not speak. The difficulties and dangers with which it menaces the continuation schools, and the extent to which they fulfil the aims described, will be seen in the course of a detailed investigation.

The continuation school as a kind of primary school falls under the same authorities. The chief of these is the local or district council (Gemeinde-rath). This body is bound to provide the means for the erection and support of primary schools in such number as corresponds to the needs of the locality, and of continuation schools as a sequel to them. The Schulvorstand (school committee of management) supervises the details in each case; and it goes without saying that all continuation schools are subject to inspection by the Bezirks-inspektor (practically a county inspector).*

In the case of neighbouring districts, where the number of boys between 14 and 17 is in each very small, one continuation school may serve for all alike. The number of these Vereinsschulen was at first larger than at present. In Easter of 1880 it was 76; since then it has decreased, for several disadvantages have been found which militate against its more universal adoption. In the country, especially, the jealousy of one district against another has been a bar; and, above all, the frequent difficulty of finding a school in a sufficiently central position—a condition in the absence of which loss of time to the scholars and unpunctuality at once appear.

As a rule, therefore, in the country the building utilised for the purpose is the primary school of the place.

In the great towns combination is easy and profitable. A special organisation may be created, and special buildings set apart. Leipzig has four schools for its 2,000 pupils, one in each quarter of the town, with a special director at the head of all. One great advantage follows from this, the natural arrangement. The furnishing of a room usually employed for an elementary school is by no means suitable for boys of 15. The desks at first caused great discomfort, and it was found advisable to furnish certain rooms (an easy matter in a large town building) exclusively for continuation school pupils.

The numbers in the schools vary, but in the country it may be safely said that each school has exceedingly few scholars, in the towns, more; but in very few is there an excess. The vast majority of the little schools in the agricultural districts are schools with but one class, from two to 35 scholars; in Saxe-Weimar, for instance, the latest statistics give no less than 380 out of the 450 schools as having a class of 10 or under. The rest range in numbers from 257 scholars in Weimar, who are divided into nine classes, to a school such as that at Tiefenort, with 36 scholars and two classes. In Saxony, there are roughly about 1,500 schools with a single class, 150 with two classes, and 200 with three classes or more. The vast majority (seven-eighths) of the classes are under 40; the remainder vary from 40 to 60. Striking an average, the number of scholars to a class is about 26.

The teachers available are the ordinary primary school staff; and there is no difficulty in obtaining them in sufficient numbers.

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* § 7. Saxon Law on the Primary School System. § 32, *id.*

In the large towns these are reinforced by a few technical instructors, *e.g.*, in some varieties of drawing or book-keeping, while the clergyman occasionally assists in the instruction. The number of teachers all told in Saxony who were engaged in continuation school work was about 3,200, or one to every 22 pupils; of these not more than 100 were drawn from outside the ranks of elementary teachers.

It will be seen from these statistics that the size of a class, even in the larger town schools, is far smaller than in the Volksschule. It has been found by experience that better results are so produced, for the maintenance of order and the imparting of instruction are naturally more difficult at the later than the earlier stages of boyhood. There is no question of under-staffing in the continuation schools; indeed, the desire of some district councils to give no teacher ground of complaint at not being employed has led occasionally to two teachers taking a single class between them, a method which is not satisfactory either for pupil or instructors in view of the inevitable break in the continuity of methods.

The Time of Instruction.

Two principles of classification may be adopted here, first, the arrangement of the year; second, of the week.

Instruction throughout the year is given in about two-thirds of the schools; the fact that one-third prefers a half-year's course is easily explicable. These belong almost exclusively to the agricultural districts, where the summer is so full of occupation as to leave but little or no leisure for books.

The number of hours is by law fixed at not less than two per week; it may by the local authority be raised as high as six. In the case of schools with only six months at their disposal, four hours is the minimum. In the case of Leipzig, the local authority has altered the course from three to two years, in consideration of the fact that a regular weekly period of six hours instruction throughout the year can be obtained and that the pupils arrive therefore with much more speed at the usual standard of knowledge. Otherwise the statistics are not altogether favourable; less than one-tenth of the localities went in any way beyond the minimum requirements, and these were generally to be found in the great cities and industrial centres. The country schools, where the enthusiasm for education is far less keen, nearly always content themselves with the lowest number of hours. The teachers also, in continuation schools with but a single class, are naturally in favour of such a restriction; they urge with reason that more than four hours evening work per week, besides their days in the primary school, overtaxes their strength.

Last, the time in the week may, according to the law, be either the evening of a weekday or Sunday, at such an hour as not to interfere with the attendance of the pupils at divine service. The number of schools utilising Sunday in Saxony stands in proportion to those choosing the weekdays as 1 : 2·5;

of these, not quite half supplemented the Sunday work by one week-day evening. In Saxe-Weimar, the proportion of Sunday schools to the rest is greater, though exact figures are not forthcoming. The usual hours are either from 7 to 9 in the morning (before service), or 2 to 4 in the afternoon. The particular evenings are, of course, left to the local board to decide in accordance with the varying circumstances of the pupils.

A survey of these statistics will probably by itself provoke the just reflection that here—in the time to be allotted for instruction—lies the greatest difficulty in the organisation of the continuation schools. In discussing this obstacle at length it is most convenient to divide the schools by the line already hinted at, into schools in the town and agricultural districts.

The stumbling-block to successful work in the villages consists in the inevitable break in instruction produced by the six months vacation in the summer. The additional two hours a week in the winter will not, in the eyes of any teacher, form an adequate compensation. The result of the system as it is can easily be guessed. The pupils forget in the summer what they learnt in the winter; and a large part of each session is necessarily spent in going over the ground once more. It is not that the boys learn nothing, but that the progress made is so slow as to dishearten both themselves and their teacher.

It is not easy either to see how the difficulty, almost inherent in the nature of agricultural labour, can be altogether surmounted. Neither masters nor men can be expected to make at present the great self-sacrifice which would be involved by any curtailment of the hours of work in summer. Neither, again, can the solution of the problem which has been adopted by a certain number of schools be considered altogether satisfactory, viz., an hour's instruction in summer on Sundays in addition to the winter time. While it must be pronounced far better than no instruction at all, the conditions are naturally unfavourable. The hard and continuous toil during the week, especially as harvest draws near, is not calculated to render any invasion of the rest of Sunday palatable. It would seem to be one of those problems which must be left for settlement to the slow growth of educational zeal amongst the classes affected.

In the evening schools of the towns the one great advantage of continuity through the year is assured. But there, too, obstacles are met which have for the last 10 years been the theme of loud complaints from all engaged in the work of these institutions. They cannot be better described than in the words of Herr Pache, whose long experience as director of the greatest Fortbildungsschule in Leipzig gives him an especial right to speak for the town schools:—

"An essential presupposition of successful work can be won in most places only by the selection of a fit time for instruction; and we hold a reform to be so necessary in this particular that we lay down as a special thesis—

"A proper time for the work must be secured for our continuation schools."

"Everyone," he continues, "who has been engaged in such "work for some years will be able to speak of the scholars, "tired with work, whose freshness for a further mental activity "is completely lost, in whom interest in any lesson, whatever "its nature, has sunk to its lowest ebb owing to their fatigue. "If we think of these scholars, who, released from their work "at the last moment, have to rush, heated and often without "supper, to the school, it will be easily understood how excessively difficult is the work of the teacher, how small the gain "can be for many of the pupils. We are perfectly well aware "that even before the existence of compulsory continuation "schools many earnest young men learnt much from evening "instruction, and laid the foundation for their good fortune. "But they were, as a rule, the energetic, who were convinced of "the necessity of a continued education; they possessed and "still possess the moral force to surmount all difficulties and "win their way to the goal. At present, however, we have "sitting on the school benches beside these youths all those "who are brought to us by the regulations of the law, not by "any interest of their own. *They* will make no *special* "endeavours to overcome defects, and therefore the conditions "should be made as favourable as possible for them. In the "evening, after a hard day's work, they are disinclined to "exertion; and they can hardly be blamed severely for want "of energy at such a time."

The choice of Sunday in the towns, as in the country, is a happy one so far as it secures the full vigour of mind, unimpaired by bodily labour; but far more strong than even in the country is the resentment of the pupils at having to give up some of their leisure. Sunday in the towns is the great festival day for the working classes; above all in the summer, when the day is taken up from morning to evening with excursions to the neighbouring villages; and any instruction is bound to encroach upon some amusement, often of a perfectly legitimate kind.

It redounds greatly to the credit of the supporters of the Fortbildungsschulen* that they have not been permanently disheartened by the difficulties arising from the discouraging circumstances that have been depicted. They have devoted themselves to finding a remedy, and the result of their efforts has been successful. This remedy lies in a principle which will be seen to dominate the instruction as well as the organisation in the best and most advanced institutions in Saxony; the principle that *the schools must be brought into the closest possible connexion with the trades from which their pupils are drawn, and with their employers, as the representatives of those trades.* How this can be done may be illustrated, first, by a description of the arrangements made at Zittau.

There the scholars are for the most part first divided into classes according to their trades, and then, by agreement with

* The adoption of a better time for instruction forms the first object in the programme of the "Verband der Freunde und Lehrer deutscher Fortbildungsschulen."

the employer's convenient time is fixed, different in each case: *e.g.* locksmiths attend on Monday from 1 to 4, those employed in furniture businesses on Tuesday from 1 to 4, hatters on Tuesday from 2 to 7, &c.

In Dresden by similar means Wednesday afternoon has been obtained, and though this step forward has not as yet been made by more than a few towns, all the efforts of the friends of continuation schools are being directed to this end. "It is," says Herr Paetz, "a special pleasure to notice that the schools "are thus freed from the just reproach of fixing one and the "same time for instruction whatever be the calling of the boy; "and it is a matter for congratulation that the time has been "chosen in accordance with the requirements of the industry. "Should it be decided, as we hope to establish a permanent "relation in the manner described between the school and the "trade we may depend upon the majority of the employers not "failing sooner or later to perceive the advantages which a "proper time for the instruction brings to both parties. It will "be the work of years perhaps to induce this conviction in all "circles; but what has been obtained in Dresden and Zittau is, "with good will and trouble, practicable elsewhere."

It is impossible, I venture to think, to over-estimate the importance of this new departure. The force of the arguments for a few hours in the day-time being set apart for the continuation school, if it is to work at its best, must be universally admitted. In most trades (such is the ground for the system I am describing) there are bound to be some hours in the week when the employés can be best spared, and the decision as to which these hours should be, must obviously be guided by those skilled in the particular industry concerned. In manufacturing centres the concentration of pupils, according to the chief trades, in sufficient numbers to form a class is easy, and arrangements for their attendance at separate times no less so, where there is an abundant supply of large schools and teachers. In Leipzig, for instance, separate classes are formed for locksmiths, carpenters, bakers, spinners, clerks, workers in iron, and gardeners. Each of these classes is divided into two sections, according to the year of entrance into the school; and each section attends on a different day, so that no work-room is completely emptied at any one time.

Leipzig again affords an admirable example of the method in which the employers' interest is won to the work and their views consulted. At the beginning of each half-year a meeting of teachers and employers of pupils is held, and four of the latter class are chosen as representatives. These sit on the school committee as a sort of assessors. At the monthly conferences they hear the programme of work, and give their advice upon it; they also have an opportunity of learning what progress individual employés are making, of consulting as to the time for classes, &c. Thus a fit time for instruction is secured without great inconvenience, while the employers, finding every

effort made to fall in with their wishes, and their assistance invited, have been gradually led in many cases to take a warm interest in the institations. Herr Pache informed me that they had frequently lent models and material to the Leipzig schools for use or exhibition; and that a large number who at first regarded continuation schools with disfavour had from being admitted to a closer insight into their working, gradually come to appreciate the increased intelligence of their employés and the labours of the teachers.

Nor is the combination of class with trade without its effect on the scholars. A boy is among his daily companions, and in their presence he is naturally more ashamed of appearing ignorant or unruly than before strangers. Mention too must be made of an argument which has great weight with many German educationalists. The death of the system of apprenticeship and of trade-guilds, the enormous specialisation in departments of great factories, have tended to destroy the feeling for a trade as a corporate body, an "honourable profession with its own "part to take in the world's work." "The association of boys "at one trade in a separate class, even at the continuation "school, tends, when taken in conjunction with the instruction, "to heighten this sense of corporate unity—a feeling which no "German will undervalue who remembers that it was men "animated by this spirit, who gave reality during the Middle "Ages in our towns to a new element of culture—the citizen-"body (das Bürgertum)."

In smaller towns a class for every separate trade is, of course, impossible, but even there broad lines of demarcation are possible; *e.g.*, between the youths employed as clerks or shop-boys and those engaged in a factory or workshop. In the country districts, of course, practically all the lads will be engaged on the land in some form, as gardeners, agricultural labourers, &c.

A few words may be added on some of the financial details in organisation.

The local council is empowered either to raise school fees or to dispense with them, according as circumstances demand. A large number of schools, about 650, charge a fee, which is however very low, ranging from 1 mark (1*s.*) per year to 6 marks. It is urged in defence of the charge that the majority of the boys in the continuation schools are in a position to pay a small sum, and that the value of the instruction is thus brought home to them more vividly than if it were absolutely free. Notwithstanding, the movement in opinion is distinctly in favour of a complete abolition of school-money.

The law in § 32 provides that work done by the teacher in a continuation school shall not be reckoned as a necessary element in his position as a Volksschullehrer, and therefore the payment for his services is not part of his salary but a special "honorarium." About 70 per cent. of the schools fix this at the minimum of 36 marks a year for one hour per week (§ 22, clause 2 of the law); the remainder (chiefly large schools in

the towns) pay at a higher rate, sometimes 90 marks per year. In some cases the number of actual hours worked is the standard; then the rate is about a mark to a mark and a half per hour.

It must be remembered that salaries among the German teachers are lower than in England; 800 marks (40*l.*) and a house is a fair wage for an assistant master in a town elementary school, so that the honorarium is not so low as it appears at first sight. The teachers, however, are not content, and insist that in the great majority of school committees a mistaken desire for economy leads them to stint the staff unnecessarily.

Finally, it is unfortunately impossible to give an accurate statement as to the total yearly cost of the continuation schools. There are no very recent statistics procurable; and as the continuation schools are connected with the primary schools, many items of expenditure, *e.g.*, repairs of buildings, heating, and lighting, are reckoned in the accounts of the latter.

In the year 1880 (when there were nearly as many schools as now) the total expense was computed on a rough estimate at 382,000 marks* (about 19,000*l.*), of which 21,625 marks (a little over 1,000*l.*) were contributed from the State chest; the remainder was raised partly by school money, &c., partly by the locality. The yearly outlay for each scholar is supposed to be nearly 6 marks (6*s.*), a sum which cannot be considered extravagant.

The Instruction.

The aim of the allgemeine Fortbildungsschule, as has been said, is primarily to establish a certain minimum of culture through the nation—to bring up, therefore, backward boys to a proper level, and to keep alive in the others the knowledge already won; in the second place, to widen that knowledge with the view of fitting the pupil for his functions as a working member of society, and a citizen endowed with the franchise.

The subjects which the Saxon Code prescribes as means to this end are German, arithmetic, "Realien" (general knowledge of facts in history, geography, and science), geometry, mensuration (Formenlehre), and drawing.

Of these only the first two are compulsory; and schools giving only the minimum number of hours to instruction are directed to limit themselves to German and arithmetic, and to leave mensuration and general knowledge to occasional references rather than formal lessons. Continuation schools with a wider course generally take either Realien or drawing, the majority Realien. A very small number, in accordance with a clause in the Code permitting such a course, take some subject not taught at all in the ordinary primary school, *e.g.* French.

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* Darlegung der in Königreiche Sachsen mit der Fortbildungsschule gemachten Erfahrungen. (Dresden—Alwin Huhle, 1880.)

A short instruction in religion may be given if the local authority permit it, but it is to be strictly without reference to any special creed; not many schools, however, avail themselves of this permission, though in all cases, as is common in all German schools, the work begins and ends with prayer, accompanied in some cases by a hymn.

This list of subjects is the natural curriculum for a Fortbildungsschule, which is to be in direct connexion with the Volksschule. The selection of matter, however, and the general method of treatment present some points well worthy of notice. It will be most convenient, therefore, to first give some extracts from the directions contained in the codes of Saxony and Saxe-Weimar, and then, with these as material, to draw out more explicitly the underlying principles, illustrating them where necessary, by the detailed practice of some of the best continuation schools.

The syllabus issued by the Saxon Ministry in 1881 is in its main outline as follows:—

"*General advice.*—The different subjects of instruction are so far as possible to be treated in relation to one another. In fixing them consideration should be paid to the relations and needs of the locality. The instruction as a whole should direct the ripening intelligence of the scholar to what is of importance for his practical life."

We may compare with this the following extract from the code of Saxe-Weimar:—

"The instruction in the continuation schools should fix and widen the knowledge won in the primary school; it should enable the scholar to perceive the direct relation of this knowledge to his daily life, and teach him to apply it in his calling as a workman."

"I. *German.*—Throughout the instruction care is to be taken to keep up correctness and fluency of speech. The German hour itself is to embrace (*a*) reading, (*b*) composition. In case of need, and only then, should orthography and grammar be touched upon.

"(*a.*) *Reading.*—The scholar should in this subject be not only exercised, as in the primary school, in correctness and intelligent expression; they should also attain by its means additional knowledge; where possible a reading-book should be especially compiled for use in continuation schools, containing besides interesting narratives in history, science, &c. ('Realien'), poems, particularly national ones. The main points in any piece should be put together by some scholar orally, and, if found profitable, also in writing. In the upper classes of continuation schools with the wider course the reading lessons may, if wished, assume the character of a lesson in the German literature and literary history.

"(*b.*) *Composition.*—The pupils should have further opportunities of learning how to express their thoughts readily and logically. Especially however, should they be practised in the simpler forms of written composition which they will meet in their daily life, *e.g.*, letters and business papers of various kinds. All compositions should be first gone through by word of mouth in class, under the guidance of the teacher.

"There should be at least 12 compositions every year written in a note-book set apart for the purpose.

"II. *Arithmetic.*—The point to which special attention should be paid in this subject is the application of the general rules already learnt to such problems as meet the boy in his actual life and business. Therefore the necessary parts of the science of arithmetic are (1) *problems* on the chief rules dealing with whole numbers and fractions, particularly with decimal fractions, and (2) the sums most usual in business, *e.g.*, interest, discount, rule of three, &c. Everything should be excluded which does not bear on the practical needs of life.

"In suitable places the pupils should be introduced to the elements of book-keeping, in so far as such lessons correspond to their abilities and the needs of the locality.

"In formulating problems the trade of the scholars should be kept in view; above all, the German systems of measurement, weight and money should be constantly brought before their eyes.

"III.—*Realien* (general knowledge).—Following upon the tasks completed in the primary schools, the scholars should be led to take an interest in the facts, both in nature and society, which directly affect themselves. The matter should be drawn from history, geography, science, and, according to the needs of the locality, commerce and agriculture.

"*In History*, for example, the instruction should comprise pictures of great personalities drawn from modern times and of recent events, treated in such a way as to help a boy to understand the present position of the State.

"*Geography* should deal chiefly with Saxony and the German Empire, especially its products, its industries, its relations to foreign countries in commerce and manufactures.

"*In Science* they are to be introduced (taking their own experiences in their trade as a starting point) to that elementary knowledge of the truths of physical science which is necessary for the understanding of the principal kinds of tools, machines, and apparatus.

"IV. *Mensuration and Practical Geometry.*—Readiness in the construction and measurement of spatial magnitudes should be the chief object sought; examples are to be drawn throughout from the trade of the scholars. Scientific proofs in the treatment of the matter are to be as far as possible avoided.

"V. *Drawing.*—This should aim at the practical application of the readiness in technique acquired in the primary school. Free-

hand drawing should, after some exercises in preparation, chiefly devote itself to ornamental forms and their application in models and decorations; while linear drawing should confine itself as a rule to the construction of lines, angles, and the most important geometrical figures used in decorative work of all kinds."

Before proceeding to comment on and amplify by illustration in certain points the syllabus already given in outline, one fact must be made prominent in the foreground.

The enormous advantage of the German continuation schools, so far as the work of the teacher is concerned, is bound to flow directly from the system itself. The Fortbildungsschule joins directly on to the Volksschule; a boy passes straight from one to the other. Thus he comes to his new teacher with his knowledge fresh; a couple of lessons is sufficient to recapitulate what he has learnt on a subject, and then the wider application can claim all the remainder of the term. How striking is the contrast (to take the best example) with our own evening schools. The great difficulty there is pointed out by Mr. C. T. Dyke-Acland. At 12, or perhaps 13, a boy leaves our elementary schools. Naturally, boyish delight at getting free from school life is his preponderating feeling. At 18 or 20, or perhaps later, when years have brought experience, he awakes to his deficiencies of knowledge, and comes back to the evening school in the hope of repairing them. But in the five or six years which have elapsed, he finds that most of what he once knew has forsaken him; not only has time got to be spent on its recovery if he wishes to proceed with the subject but he has lost what is far more difficult to resume, the habits of mental concentration and activity; he is, so to speak, out of gear. The result is that his efforts, though more strenuous, are less rewarded than those of the German pupil of 15 fresh from the analogous discipline of the Volksschule.

The revised Saxon Code dates from 1881, six years after the opening of the continuation schools. The interval is significant, for in it was gathered the painful experience which produced the application of scientific principles to this branch of education.

The fundamental mistake at first made was in the treatment given to the subjects of instruction. Teachers were new to the work; they selected the matter to be imparted from the point of view of a higher grade elementary school. In a word it was far too general and unvaried. A monotonous uniformity reigned through the country; the two factors which should dominate any syllabus for continuation schools, the needs of the locality and the calling of the scholar, were almost entirely neglected.

For though the continuation school joins directly on to the primary school, its work must of necessity be carried on under very different conditions. The part of the latter institution is to give the child a knowledge as many sided as possible in the time at its disposal, not merely because in every province of life there are certain elementary facts of which none should be

ignorant, but still more in the hope that in the variety of his studies one at least may so appeal to him that he will afterwards pursue it by himself. It tries, too, to form such mental habits as are *universally* of service. But at the age of 15 all is altered; the boy has chosen his trade; most of his day is spent in it, and it lies in the nature of things that his interests (if he likes his business) have become specialised. To expect him to take a purely scientific delight in the acquisition of various parts of knowledge, which have no relation to his practical needs, is in a lad of his years a grave mistake. Yet this is naturally enough what was at first done by the teachers in Saxony. They had got into a certain groove in their teaching, and they had to be trained to get out of it by bitter experience of the want of interest felt by their pupils.

It was little wonder, to quote the felicitous illustration of Herr Pache, "that the future bakers slept peacefully through the "very best lecture on the air-pump, and that the butchers in "their drawings found more use for the india-rubber than the "pencil."

What was needed, therefore, and what has in the best schools been already attained was, first, *variation in the Code according to the needs of the locality.* Even in the elementary school, as had long been seen, the locality must produce variations in method; it is absurd to introduce geography, for example, in the same way to boys in the country as to those in a great town In the continuation school the same arguments apply with more force.

Therefore the district council may select its subjects; there are clearly, for example, certain districts where the majority of the boys are employed in such trades as have little or no use for freehand drawing, or a knowledge of plane geometry. In a country village again, it is not to be supposed that the selection in "Realien" of pieces to illustrate the movement of commerce, and the transactions of the "great industry," will command much favour. The constant reference in the extracts from the Code of 1881 to the local council, and the choice of matter left to it, show how thoroughly the lesson has been learnt.

Closely bound up with such variety is the *concentration of those subjects chosen round the special interests of the scholars.* This object is effected in large towns through the organization already described in detail of the pupils into classes corresponding as closely as possible to their trades. It is impossible, of course; that every small subdivision of a trade should be represented, but the main lines of demarcation can be kept. With this improvement in organisation follows the possibility of practically valuable and interesting lessons; for nothing is easier than to press the composition and arithmetic into the service of the boys calling. As the Saxon Code suggests, the arithmetic should be not abstract, but concrete and applied. Some of the pupils

will probably become small masters or foremen, with money under their charge, with disbursements to make, orders to give and fulfil, &c. This is the very class where lack of business habits and training, is, as a rule, conspicuous and calamitous. "They have little or no knowledge as to how to keep a profit "and loss account properly, or to deal with their capital; some- "times have even forgotten how to work a sum in interest, or "to calculate a rather complicated estimate with correctness." To remedy these and similar defects is the aim of the continuation school, as a glance at the syllabus of the Leipzig schools will show.

In the classes drawn from the manufactories, arithmetic has one hour or two hours a week. The first year's course is: (*a.*) Calculations of measurement in whole numbers, fractions, and decimals; the problems relate to the raw material, machines, tools, the completed product, &c. (*b.*) Simple sums dealing with problems in which money is involved, *e.g.* practice. (*c.*) Complicated problems dealing more especially with management of the financial relations in a small business, *e.g.* the computation of loans, interest on a savings bank account, division of profits in a partnership, discount, &c. The examples taken always treat of sums of money and occurrences which may be reasonably supposed to be common in the trade. I heard, to take a significant instance, a teacher explain to the boys the method in which they might learn from the newspaper what was the current rate of interest for money, and the use of banks as the best loan offices. Nobody, I think, could question the value of this information to boys who might some day be small tradesmen, or doubt how often the lack of such knowledge has offered facilities for extortionate usury.

In the second year an elementary course of book-keeping is given. It comprises such points as the use of a cash-book and of the ledger, bad debts, the summing up in a statement of profit and loss, &c. The boys are shown the general principles; they have then each to select his own examples for the illustrations worked in their books, so that his trade must furnish the material for the application of the lesson.

To German, one hour per week is usually allotted. The method of teaching reading and composition resembles that employed in the elementary schools: and as the reading is generally bound up with the "Realien," it may be deferred for the present.

The composition presents some interesting features. A few themes are drawn from the business or native place of the boys, *e.g.*, the battle of Leipzig or a description of the machines used in the trade (for iron-workers). But as a general rule its purpose is even more distinctly a practical one—to initiate the pupil into the correct style to be employed in business transactions, and to give him a general acquaintance with the chief forms and documents which he may be ordered by the state or locality

to prepare. The list, for example, of the themes set at Leipzig is the following:—

1st Year.

(*a.*) A few pieces of dictation were set to correct faults in orthography.

(*b.*) Two essays on the calling of the boys (in this case carpenters).

(*c.*) *Business Compositions.*—The method of making out bills and receipts; deposit-notes; promissory-notes; a bail-bond; lease of a place of business; and an advertisement of a business in the papers. Instruction was given on the most important regulations of communication by post, rail, and telegraph; models of the usual forms to be employed were filled up under the guidance of the teacher, *e.g.*, the address of a parcel, post office orders, income-tax form, &c.

2nd Year.

(*a.*) Four essays drawn from the material provided by the trade.

(*b.*) Practice in business letters. A circular letter advertising a business; an estimate; a letter asking for employment; an order for goods; a letter of recommendation; a first request for payment of a debt; a second request; a summons-form. Contracts between employer and employé; a form of will; explanations on the method of registering change of domicile, &c.

Two of these subjects—the requests for payment of a debt—I myself heard treated in Leipzig. The method was the ordinary German one of oral composition; a scholar was given the theme, and under the guidance of the teacher, who pointed out the different forms in which the demand should be couched after the expiration of a long or short period respectively, an exceedingly creditable and business-like composition was produced. The instruction in such subjects as those mentioned will hardly, I think, be deemed superfluous by any who have had experience of the letters ordinarily sent by a workman in search of employment, or who have witnessed the difficulty experienced by a large portion of our own population in filling up an ordinary form like the census return.

The main portion in the syllabus is taken by the "Realien," which in the classes composed of boys from one and the same trade, takes the shape of "lessons on the general nature of the trade" (Geschäftskunde), a very interesting development of the instruction. To this two hours per week are devoted, and its scope may be shown by extracts from the syllabus prepared for the carpenter classes.

1st Year.—Easter to Whitsuntide.

(*a.*) Kinds of timber used in carpentering; the parts of a tree-trunk. A short description of a tree (yearly rings, the bark, &c.).

(*b.*) The physical and technical qualities of timber (its external form, specific weight, hardness, texture, smell and colour, &c.), illustrated by timber used in Germany.

Whitsuntide to the Summer Holidays.

(*c.*) The various kinds of flaws in timber: how distinguished.

(*d.*) The insects injurious to timber.

Summer Holidays to Michaelmas.

(*e.*) Description of the most important kinds of timber used for carpentering purposes (the larch, cypress, cedar, &c.). With the description of each its price was given; the countries, mountains, &c., chiefly noted for its growth, and the most important towns which employed it in manufacture, were mentioned.

(*f.*) The instruments employed to bind together parts of the timber (clamps, nails, &c.) and their prices.

(*g.*) The materials useful for beautifying the surface of timber (oil, cement, &c.), and their prices.

Michaelmas to Christmas.

(*h.*) The principal tools and machines employed in wood-work, how long they should last, and their price; the strength necessary for working them; the space they occupy, &c.

This lesson was accompanied by a visit to the Exhibition of Industrial Appliances and Products (Gewerbe ausstellung.)

Christmas to Easter.

(*i.*) Erection of a work-room for five men. (Space required, ventilation, lighting, division of the tools, machines, &c.)

(*k.*) A few points from the history of the growth of the trade. The system of apprenticeship and of guilds. The movement for the freedom of the workers. The most important regulations from the laws as they exist at present on the position of the workman.

2nd Year.

For this year no detailed programme is given: "It was devoted," says the syllabus, "to the more special points concerning the trade;

" especially to questions involved in the starting of a business for " oneself. In this connexion were mentioned the need for raw " material (its mass, weight, price according to the magnitude of " orders to be executed), the time necessary under various " imagined conditions, the number of assistants to be employed, " the customary wages, the fixed and circulating capital " required, &c."

The programme is similar in the case of the iron-workers, as may be judged from a few of the headings.

1. Iron in the raw; pig-iron; steel. The most important places for its production; its use in transport and commerce (short historical sketch).
2. The smelting of iron. Coal and its qualities; its effects on iron. The use of timber as fuel. Prices of the separate kinds of coal, timber-fuel, &c.
3. Tools and their prices. Special machines, *e.g.*, the steam hammer.
4. The various workers in iron: locksmiths, plumbers, machine makers, &c.
5. The workshop. Gas, water, furnaces, &c.

Gardeners have a course of elementary botany; clerks and shop-boys learn more advanced book-keeping, shorthand, and French.

This instruction, it must be carefully borne in mind, is not technical in the sense in which that at a technical school can be so called. There is no practical work done by the pupils. This deficiency, however, is only apparent; for the " Geschäftskunde " imparted in the " allgemeine Fortbildungsschule " is not in the least intended to answer the same purpose as that given in a Fachschule (or technical school in the English sense).

Its aim is, in the first place, to give the boys information on points likely to be exceedingly useful to them, especially in the case of a wish to start in business themselves; and these details, *e.g.*, the relations of master and employé, the cost of a work-room, its proper fittings to correspond with a certain amount of capital, &c. would hardly, if at all, be touched upon in a school where the cultivation of manual skill is bound to be the chief object.

Second, by a description of the material, tools, &c. employed in the industry, as a whole, it strives to stimulate the boy's interest in his calling, to make him appreciate the place of his own particular task in a great manufactory.

The need for some such instruction in what may be called " the theory of an industry " is supported by an appeal to modern conditions of life.

Great specialisation in many manufactures is now the rule; and the class of boys whom these continuation schools try especially to reach, is very large and increasing with the growth of machinery. It comprises all those whose labour, though to a certain extent requiring skill, is yet easily learnt in the daily practice of the workshop.

Engaged as they are on some small piece of work, the same possibly from one day to another, they easily lose interest in it; the time is gone by for ever when an apprentice passed through one branch of his trade after another and ended by gaining a real insight into the whole.

"An experience of many years" says Director Pache, "has "convinced us that the great mass of workers in a large industry "have come to regard themselves as mere machines—have "absolutely no sense of the importance of their own position "in industrial life."

Just as good teaching on the subject of the constitution of his country, its laws, the privileges and duties of membership of a society, may well change a man from an apathetic to an intelligent voter, so, to enable a man to take a general view of the field of his own industry as a whole, will very probably stimulate him to take a keener interest in his own particular plot. It cannot be too strongly insisted, as has been already said, that there is here no attempt to minimise the value of strictly technical education for high-skilled work. What the promoters of the allgemeine Fortbildungsschule point out, is the existence of a large class of less-skilled workers who need not so much increased practical dexterity as greater general intelligence and interest in their work.

In the case of either unskilled labour or trades so thinly represented that separate classes cannot be formed for them, definite teaching of the kind described is clearly impossible. For it is substituted a course on the history and objects of interest in their native place, and on the German constitution, especially in its relation to industry. In Leipzig the subjects dealt with are of the following kind:—

The chief buildings in the city (the Concert House, the Theatre, the Picture Gallery, the Law Courts, the University, the King's Palace, the Railway Station, &c.); their foundation, style of architecture, purpose, and the principal objects of interest in them; the chief manufactures and works; the history of the town, &c. So far as possible, this history is gathered round the buildings. Under the heading of "the King's Palace" a sketch of the old Kings of Saxony is given; while the story of the Battle of Leipzig is accompanied by a visit to the field. (It is hardly needful to state that the numerous memorials, common in a German city, form a most valuable starting point for instruction.) I may add as specimens—first, the full list of themes touched under the title of the "Concert House," and, as a contrast, the heads of two lessons on the Gas-works.

(i.) The meaning of a concert. Importance of the concerts in the Gewandhaus. Their origin (1743 in private houses, 1781 in the Gewandhaus). The Conservatorium is intended for the education of musicians. Celebrated musicians of Leipzig: Bach, Hiller, Mendelssohn, Schumann, David.

Scenes from the life of Sebastian Bach. Leipzig as the birth-place of Richard Wagner.

(ii.) *The Gas-works.*—Development of the art of illumination (torches, lamps, &c.), and of the materials (oil, tallow, wax, petroleum, gas). Petroleum. Illumination by gas (its production from coal, its qualities, weight, poisonous nature, explosiveness, heat, and lighting power).

The electric light.—How produced; the chief parts of a dynamo — the conductors and insulators; the kinds of electric lamp; its lighting power and expense in comparison with gas.

With this series goes a course on the "Rights and Duties of a Citizen" (Lehre vom Staate). Starting with the workshop and the laws regulating the relations of employer and employed, it passes on to such themes as the franchise, the German Empire, the Reichstag, Germany's army and fleet, German colonies; German commerce, the most important lines of communication with other countries, &c.

The boys take notes of each of these subjects, as the lesson proceeds, in a separate book. Every lesson then begins with a short recapitulation of the previous subject, intended, of course, to ensure that a boy should take the trouble to read his notes over. Otherwise no special points of method deserve mention. The lesson consists chiefly of description interspersed with some questions; a lesson in reading is often used to supplement the instruction by a well-chosen piece bearing on the subject in hand.

Drawing is limited to those classes whose avocation enables them to make practical use of it (carpenters, book-binders, lithographers, engravers, &c.). Here it occupies a large part of their time, usually three hours a week.

In the first year the instruction is usually of a general nature; *e.g.*, copies for freehand drawing of a more difficult character than those done in the elementary school. It begins with the geometrical figures and curves usually found in ornamentation—the ellipse and spirals. These are at first sketched only in pencil; the use of ink and colour is deferred till a later stage.

When the pupil is well practised in rapid sketching of the models given him, he passes to designing small ornamentations for himself (*e.g.*, such as might be used for the corners of book covers); and in the second place to making alterations in a fixed design, according to a given scale. A certain ornament is set before him, and he is asked to make it suitable for a surface of a much larger size.

Finally, the work concentrates itself on sketches of menus, cards, covers for books, &c. Here shadowed ornamentation is allowed and the use of colour explained.

Geometrical drawing and building construction is substituted for freehand where the trade of the scholar seems to demand it, *e.g.*, in the case of boys employed as builders or carpenters. The course is governed by similar principles; in the first year general instruction; in the second, specialised. They begin,

therefore, by learning the use of their instruments; the compass, the T square, &c., as well as the chief kinds of geometrical figures which admit of exact measurement, and the way to construct them. The most important laws of geometry are explained and illustrated by examples. In the second year they pass first to applying their general principles to particular examples, chiefly architectural, *e.g.*, the various shapes of the arch or windows. The figures are constructed and sketched on the board by the teacher through questions to the scholars, and then copied by them into their books.

In the end the examples are so selected as to enable the trades to be split up into even narrower divisions, *e.g.*, into masons and plasterers. The former, for example, will be set to draw models of the stone bands necessary for strong walls, the construction of a vault, &c.

The general principles of the drawing instruction may be summed up in the words of a competent authority, Director Wietz, who was sent by the Berlin School Council on a visit to the Leipzig schools.

(*a.*) "In the work done here the principal aim is not to draw a picture, but to make the pupils understand the work done in the work-room."

(*b.*) More weight, therefore, is laid on correct proportion and elaboration of details than on elegance of outline.

"The work," he adds, "which was submitted to me from the "bookbinders class and the picture-framers consisted of "patterns designed by the boys themselves, or altered from "copies. It was excellent in respect both of accuracy of "measurement and carefulness in detail."

It must be remembered that the system of instruction I have been describing is in its fulness only carried out at present in some of the very best continuation schools in Saxony. The great mass of country schools, and even many of the town schools, limit themselves far more narrowly. Their work is more a recapitulation of the knowledge gained in the primary school, and less of a positive addition to it.

Many schools, as was seen, only take two subjects, German and arithmetic; and the scholar has a good deal of extra practice in reading and composition, and learns some further rules of commercial arithmetic. Even those schools that add Realien to their list often confine it to the amount enforced by the Code—some acquaintance with the present history of Germany, and its commercial relations, &c. Concentration on a particular body of trades, though thoroughly in accordance with the spirit of the Code, has not as yet been widely employed.

The Discipline.

"Moral education" (Erziehung) has always been one of the chief aims of the Fortbildungsschule. As I have already explained, the influence of religious organisations on young

working-men is even less in Germany than in England. Neither does the home occupy a prominent position in a lad's life, save on a few special festivals. He meets his fellows in the evening or on Sunday at a café or Gasthaus; and social conditions tend to withdraw him from the care and influences of older and more experienced people than himself or his companions. The continuation school is avowedly on one side an attempt to remedy this dangerous state of things. The law of Saxony recognises its claim to exercise authority over its pupils in their lives outside the school walls. "The discipline," it says, "of the "continuation school extends to the behaviour of the scholars "outside the school, so far as such a supervision aids the "purpose of the school. Visits to public dancing-halls and to "all such exhibitions as are dangerous to uprightness and purity "of character, are strictly forbidden to scholars of a continua-"tion school." On the motion of the school committee of management, in conjunction with the police of the district, particular pleasure resorts may be stigmatised as being of a vicious nature. All regulations of this kind are to be published in the rules of the school; penalties to be enforced by the police will follow upon any breach of them.

The ordinance in Saxe-Weimar, besides prohibiting visits to public dancing-halls, forbids any scholar to take part in political associations or gatherings. "The teachers and authorities of "the school are to co-operate with the police in seeing that such "rules are strictly enforced."

The attitude of the teacher is therefore a quasi-paternal one, as is symbolised by the fact that the scholar is addressed by him as "du." Within the school his tone is authoritative, though not harsh. No corporal punishment is allowed; detention for half-an-hour after the usual time of leaving is permitted to every teacher. In specially refractory cases a report of the lad is made to the director, who can communicate with the parents, or, with the consent of the school committee and the district inspector, punish with a day's imprisonment, or, as a last resort, with public expulsion from the school.

I was struck in all the schools I visited in Leipzig, not merely by the order in class, but by the quietness and discipline observed in leaving and entering the school; but what particularly impressed me with pleasure (so far as I had opportunities for notice) was the interest shown by individual teachers in the life of their pupils. In the country schools, where classes are smaller, and village life more concentrated, such interest would be even more easy and more natural. No one can doubt that, given a teacher with force of character, tact, and sympathy for his scholars, abundant opportunities for the exercise of a potent and lasting influence on lads at a most critical stage of their development have been thrown open to him by the compulsory continuation schools. That these opportunities are known, and have not been neglected, may be inferred from the words of Director Pache to the teachers' conference in Leipzig.

"We are well aware," he says, "that an instruction of only a "few hours per week secures but a limited sphere of influence "for the teacher; and that the glances he gets into the scholar's "feelings, and hopes, and conduct of his life, must be called im- "perfect. But it is also a fact that the penetrating eye of an "experienced teacher can glance, at times, into the scholar's "inmost feelings. . . . In many a case has such a timely "influence on the part of the teacher brought about incalculable "blessings; and I personally know a great number of cases in "which experienced and warm-hearted teachers have strengthened "a failing character by the clever use of their knowledge of the "individual. . . . We can, in short, maintain and prove "that our continuation schools actually exercise a most valuable "influence on the moral education of their scholars; that they "have given firm ground to many tottering waverers, tamed "many a wild young fellow, strengthened the reverence due to "authority, and therewith afforded the growing youth a surer "standing-ground for the struggle of life, and a higher morality "(Sittlichkeit)."

Finally, a word must be said on the continuation school as a possible centre for the social life of the young men attending it. To the praise of many Saxon teachers it may be said that this possibility has been realised. Indeed, it is easy to perceive that the conditions of success are present. The scholars who are united in the Fortbildungsschule sat together as boys in the Volksschule; and there is an opportunity for their early intimacy to ripen within the three years from 14 to 17 into a friendship. Lads of 15 or 16, again, naturally feel the want of companionship and recreation after their daily work; and the school may be perfectly well made to supply this and similar needs. This, some of the best schools and teachers have been quick to recognise. In connexion with the continuation school they have founded not merely such useful institutions as a savings-bank but also societies of a wider kind. "An Association of Past and Present Pupils," as Director Pache points out, is organised by a very slight effort on the part of the teacher. In the winter weekly meetings are arranged for social intercourse, music, &c. In the summer bands for excursions, walks, &c. are as easily formed. It is, I think, one of the greatest advantages of the compulsory continuation school that it retains a boy in school at the age when he is capable of appreciating such an organisation and such efforts, if judiciously made, on the part of his teachers. In the elementary school, he is still too young. But I can entertain no doubt, from what I saw at Leipzig and heard from teachers, that the continuation school might, under proper direction, inspire in its scholars something of the feelings that a public school in England brings to its members: something of the same *esprit de corps* and keen social life. Of the advantages of encouraging such a feeling in young working-men, there is no need to speak.*

* *See* Herr Pache's work. "Die zeitgemässe Gestaltung der Fortbildungsschule," pp. 51-56, for more detailed exhortations to the Leipzig Conference on this subject.

In summing up, it is not too much to say, I think that this system of compulsory continuation schools is one of the greatest experiments ever made in the history of education. In the first place, it is impossible, whatever the feelings of an Englishman towards the compulsion may be, not to admire the boldness of the conception and the thoroughness of the steps taken to carry it out. The laws ordering attendance are not a sham; the education is truly universal. Second, what equally merits praise, is the devotion and energy bestowed on finding a solution of the difficulties which such a gigantic experiment was bound to encounter. It must always be borne in mind that the system is only 20 years old. The warmest advocates of it admit freely that the efficiency of the schools has been in the past, and in many cases still is crippled, by the difficulties I have described: the short and often unsuitable time for the instruction, the amalgamation of idle and industrious in one class, and finally the want in many parts of teachers able by their own added knowledge to make their instruction specially interesting for youths of 15 and 16. In the country districts these obstacles are no doubt great. Notwithstanding, the minimum standard of culture has been raised throughout Saxony in the last 20 years. The number of illiterates, which in 1874–5 was ·537 in every hundred members of the population, had in 1890 fallen to ·012.

In the great towns, notably Dresden and Leipzig, the solution of these difficulties which weigh so heavily on the less advanced localities, has been found in the principle emphasised throughout the organisation and instruction—the all-important principle that the school should be arranged and the work mapped out, so far as possible, to satisfy the needs of the trades in the district. It is, I think, not fanciful to attribute some of the advance made by Saxon industry during the last 20 years, *e.g.*, the growing importance of Leipzig as a manufacturing centre—to the increased intelligence brought about by the universal attendance at the Fortbildungsschule.* The principles adopted in the schools there are being pressed vigorously forward by a large body of able supporters; and it is difficult to believe that their extension is not merely a matter of time. Doubtless the next 20 years will suggest yet further improvements; and the continuation school system in that case has a great future before it.

In presenting this report, I must acknowledge my great indebtedness throughout to Herr Pache, Director of the continuation schools at Leipzig. His numerous writings on this subject, on which he is the recognised authority, have been constantly referred to by me, while his personal kindness enabled me to verify them by my own observation.

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* I may be allowed to mention here a remark made to me by a very able teacher in Leipzig with regard to the commercial competition between England and Germany. "Where," he said, "we beat you, it is not so much due to the skill of our best work-"men, which I do not believe to be much better than your own, but to the greater "intelligence and better education *first of the mass of our workmen and next of our "middle-class business men (the heads of firms, buyers, commercial travellers, "&c.).*"

Further information will be found in the following works :—

Oskar Pache.—Handbuch der deutschen Fortbildungsschulwesens. Vol. I., 1896; Vol. II., not yet published. (Herrosé, Wittenberg.)

„ „ Die zeitgemässe Gestaltung der deutschen Fortbildungsschule. (Herrosé, 1890.)

„ „ Deutsche Fortbildungsblätten (Monthly Journal, Herrosé.)

„ „ Die Lehre vom Staate. (Leipzig, Feodor Reinbotte.)

„ „ Die Lehre von der Gesellschaft. (Leipzig, Feodor Reinbotte.)

„ „ Article "Fortbildungsschule" in Professor Rein's Encyclopædia of Pædagogy.

Die obligatorische Einführung von Fortbildungsschulen von einem praktischen Schulmann. (Oschatz, Oldecops Erben, 1873.)

Darlegung der in Königreiche Sachsen mit der Fortbildungsschule gemachten Erfahrungen. (Dresden, Alwin Huble.)

F. H. Dale.

The School Journey in Germany.

"Nicht der Besitz der Kentnisse, Sondern der Erwerb derselben ist die beste Frucht der Schule."—*Lazarus.*

The idea of the school journey as an essential part of education appears to be about a hundred years old in Germany. Locke certainly considered travel a necessary part of a gentleman's education, but the education of the common people never entered into his plan; with him education was a special privilege which only the rich and well-born might hope to enjoy. Rousseau appears to have been the originator of the idea of the school journey, in the form in which it still prevails in many schools, particularly those professing Herbartian methods in Germany. He never accomplished an actual school journey himself, but he inspired men like Salzmann, Bender, Stoy, and Ziller to work out the idea, and to introduce it into their regular plan of school instruction. It is extremely common in Germany to find definite teaching taking place outside the school walls. The idea of cultivating the children's observation and of making them go through experiences for themselves is very firmly fixed in the mind of the German pedagogue. In the forests surrounding German towns, and villages, one frequently meets classes of boys or girls with their teachers, examining the kinds of fir trees and mosses or seeking for flowers, or caterpillars. In the clover fields one meets them comparing the different kinds of clover, and in the harvest field one finds them counting the grains of corn on a single head. They visit the mill, and the miller takes them all over the building, and shows them how the corn is ground into flour; they are taken to the pottery, and the potter shows them the various processes the clay goes through before the blue jug is produced. Many of the schools have gardens attached to them, and it is a part of the school routine to spend certain hours there, measuring, planting, sowing, pruning, and weeding. While I write this in Eisenach, with my windows overlooking the gardens of the Bürger-Schule, a class of boys with their master are at this moment transplanting seedlings from pots into prepared plots of ground. The "Heimat-Kunde" in the younger classes demands many expeditions in the neighbourhood surrounding the home district. The children cross the river, ascend the hill on the opposite side of the valley and have their attention drawn to the position of the church, the school, the mill, and other familiar landmarks. The materials gathered in these excursions are very carefully worked through in school afterwards, and maps are drawn showing the river, the hill, the valley, the bridge, and so on. Longer expeditions, lasting half a day, or a day, are taken for the purpose of extending the geographical outlook, or of visiting a place of historical interest. Among these longer expeditions, the "Maigang" is very popular with the children. They spend the whole day in the forest or on the mountain with their teachers, and they are directed what to see, and how to see it. Only a few days ago I met a Maigang in

Jena. The party consisted of about forty boys, from twelve to fifteen years of age, and their schoolmaster. They had come from a country district about fifteen miles distant, and they had visited the Schiller garden, where "Wallenstein" was written, and climbed the hill above the town where the battle of Jena was fought, and where the Napoleon Stone now stands to commemorate the event, and they were now in the Botanical Garden examining tropical vegetation. The school journey, however, is more definite and more ambitious, and it extends for a longer period than any of these excursions. It is a journey taken by masters and pupils together, which may last from three days to three weeks. It is usually taken on foot, and is as inexpensive as possible; therefore the food is plain, and the accommodation is very simple. Each boy carries his own knapsack, and also certain articles, such as shoebrushes, ink, string, &c., for the common use of the party. These journeys are carefully planned, and are often closely connected with the subjects included in the year's work in the school. The district visited is chosen on account of its historical associations, or the geographical illustrations it furnishes, the richness and variety of plant and animal life to be studied, and constant pauses are made to afford opportunities for the examination of valleys, buildings, plant life, &c. In tracing the history of the school journey from the present time backwards we find that Salzmann, in his school at Schenepfenthal, arranged and carried out many school journeys from 1784 to 1803. This was the first definite attempt to introduce the school journey into the ordinary school routine, and although the journeys which Salzmann took with his pupils are open to criticism in many points of detail, all the essential features of a well organised school journey are to be found in his plan. Pestalozzi, in his Institute at about this time, was animated with the same idea, when he planned those excursions in the neighbourhood of Yverdon which his pupils describe afterwards with such evident enjoyment, but Salzmann's method of conducting a journey was more definite than Pestalozzi's. We have ample opportunities of studying Salzmann's journeys, for very careful and lengthy reports and descriptions of them were written by himself and his assistants, and these volumes still exist. Salzmann, in preparing these reports for publication, states that they are intended, firstly, to give pleasure to the parents of his pupils and the friends of the school, and secondly, they are prepared for the benefit of the pupils themselves to give them useful and pleasant reading matter, and to form material for instructive conversation lessons. Such lessons Salzmann hoped would encourage in them a love of Nature, habits of observation, and a desire to travel. These reports contain a mass of miscellaneous information, often badly arranged and sometimes unsuitable for children. One cannot help thinking that the detailed description of natural objects, and wearisome and lengthy accounts of what was seen upon the journey must have bored the children. The strained moralising which accompanies many of these descriptions also,

often appears to us ridiculous. Herr Scholz, in his pamphlet, "Die Schulreise als organisches Glied im Plane der Erziehungschule,"* quotes the following as an example from one of Salzmann's volumes. To the description of a potato field the following moral sentiment is appended:—"Not only potatoes are thus scattered widely, but other things also, such as the good deeds of mankind." Salzmann's enthusiastic devotion, his warm affection, in short his personality—(and the personality of the teacher is the most important part of every lesson)—probably saved these lessons from the dulness and wearisomeness which the written reports convey. We cannot estimate a great teacher from his writings; it is the wonderful personality of Pestalozzi that endears him to us more than any written works he left behind him; so probably our pity is wasted in commiserating Salzmann's pupils. In carrying out the school journey Salzmann's choice of the route was decided by chance or personal reasons, rather than a definite connexion existing between the school curriculum and the school journey. Once the journey was taken to a certain place because he had relations there, and another time because friends had invited them. In preparing for the journey Salzmann insisted on three points:—

I. Preparatory geographical instruction. The pupils were fully equipped with exact knowledge of the provinces through which they passed and the boundaries of these provinces, and the people who inhabited them, the industries of the people, and the products of the land, and so on.

II. A careful inspection was made of the pupils' clothes, shoes, and underlinen before the journey was undertaken.

III. Arrangements were made for conducting the journey in an orderly fashion. The company was divided into sections, and each section was entrusted to various officers who were charged with special duties. One boy acted as guide, another was especially enjoined to watch the baggage, a third had to keep a look out for objects of interest and so on.

Salzmann particularly valued the physical and moral training of the school journeys. The exposure to rain and sun hardened the children's bodies, and the hardships they frequently endured strengthened their characters. Bad weather and bad roads were never allowed to interfere with their plans, they went straight on although it rained steadily for hours, or the roads were so bad that they frequently sank to their knees in mud. Their food was of the simplest kind and they usually slept on straw.

In describing a long march in rain and fog Salzmann writes:—
"It became darker and darker until we could hardly go one
"step ahead, we were compelled to seek the way with a stick.
"We must stop to drag now this one and now that one out of
"the mud."

* In "Aus dem Pädagogischen Universitäts-Seminar zu Jena," Heft III. (Hermann Beyer, Langensalza).

Salzmann's love for truth led him into many extremes. He did not hesitate to show children of tender years the most ghastly sights, or to talk to them about the darkest things in life. "Everything exists," he says, "to serve mankind, and "everything that takes place on earth is intended to stimulate "his reflection and his activity in order to give him under-"standing and goodness." In a visit to Jena he took his pupils into the Anatomical Institute and allowed them to look upon the horrors of the dissecting room, diseased organs of the human body, and embryos preserved in spirits; these he discussed fully with his pupils in order to help them to understand their environment. He took no thought of the quality or quantity of the things he forced upon their observation. In his desire to enlighten the child's mind, he choked it with a congested mass of material flung in pell-mell until the poor children must have been mentally bewildered and physically exhausted. The following is one day's programme in one of the school journeys:—

1. Early mass in a Roman Catholic church.
2. Visit to a cathedral, with detailed explanations.
3. Going over a fortress.
4. Visit to the arsenal.
5. A Benedictine monastery. } Comparison of the two.
6. A Carthusian monastery. }
7. A nunnery.
8. School of art, where pictures were explained.
9. Visit to the Imperial library, where the longest stay was made.
10. An orphanage.
11. A museum.
12. A cell where Luther once lived.

When we remember that little boys of not more than six years of age were often taken on these journeys we do not wonder that the parents sometimes complained of the severity of the school journeys.

Bender, in his school at Weinheim, arranged his school journeys on more scientific lines than Salzmann, and the materials the pupils gathered during the journey were more intimately connected with the school studies.

Salzmann held that instruction and training are widely asunder, and as the school journeys were undertaken for the purpose of training the character of the boys, it was not necessary to definitely connect them with the school studies.

Bender also values very highly the moral and social influences of the journey, and he particularly emphasises the physical benefits. In choosing the route Bender was influenced by two considerations: firstly, the beauty of the neighbourhood and the industries it contained; and secondly, the inclination of the children, and, as the boys always demanded mountainous regions, towns were usually avoided.

The preparation for the journey was twofold:—

1. A physical preparation, which took the form of a trial journey some weeks before the real journey. As the school journey was done entirely on foot, and it sometimes lasted for three weeks, it was very necessary to make a careful selection of the boys; this choice was finally decided by a medical examination of the pupils just before the journey.
2. A mental preparation, which consisted of a number of pleasant meetings in the garden under the lime trees or in the master's room, which took place regularly in order to discuss the interesting points of the journey. Maps were drawn, and geographical, historical, industrial, zoological, and botanical interests discussed.

Herr Scholz gives the following account of the Bender School journeys:—The party usually started at sunrise. The rising sun was greeted with a song, and then there was a steady walk of five or six hours. At 11 o'clock a cold meal was served, and then the boys slept—usually out of doors—for several hours. At 4 o'clock they marched again until evening. When they arrived at their inn they washed, changed their clothes, and ate their chief meal of soup, meat, and salad. The scientific aim of the journey was never for a moment neglected, the map was diligently used, and notes were entered in the note-books. In the towns the feeling for art was cultivated by directing attention to beautiful pictures in the galleries and architecture, but this was done with caution, for, as Bender says, the children easily tire of these things. In the middle of the journey a day was set apart for quietly resting. The boys wrote letters and sent home the collections of objects they had gathered on the way. Bender considered this rest necessary, because, he says, "experience teaches that the mind daily becomes more restless when "half the journey is completed." Resolution, courage, endurance, and activity were encouraged on the journeys, and sometimes the boys were exposed to real dangers in order to exercise these virtues. As an example of this is the night spent by Bender and his boys on the Kuh Alp. They determined to spend the night with the shepherds on the height. The way was difficult, the night was cold, and the food was scanty, but they bore all cheerfully, and, after dividing the party into three groups, they kindled three mighty fires and sat round them until sunrise, singing and telling stories. Bender endeavoured to make the journey an organic part of the school instruction, and his points of connexion with the school curriculum were chiefly in preparing for the journey and in working through the acquired materials afterwards. When the children returned, the notes taken on the journey were systematically completed and corrected with the help of the teachers. The maps were copied and the route was marked in red ink. Finally, a complete description of the journey was drawn up by each boy, which was carefully corrected, copied out, and bound, and presented to

the parents. Bender considered that the chief intellectual work of the journey was the improvement in the style of writing composition owing to this practice.

Stoy in Jena and Ziller in Leipsic were influenced by the experiments of Salzmann and Bender in the direction of school journeys, and they, by further experiments, succeeded in more firmly establishing the journey as a necessary part of the school instruction. Stoy was the director of the Pedagogical Seminar in Jena, and he attempted to make the school journey not only a valuable part of the ordinary school instruction, but at the same time an opportunity of special practice for the pedagogical students who accompanied him on these journeys.

Stoy valued the school journey especially for its moral influence, though he considered it also a means of intellectual and physical education. He introduced into his journeys the daily conference in which the masters and students took part after the boys had retired to rest. In this conference the events of the day were discussed, errors were admitted, and plans arranged for the morrow; it was especially designed for the benefit of the seminar students. Stoy's aim in his journeys was to extend the children's knowledge of their home environment, and to make them realise their surroundings on broad lines. He considered the Thüringian Forest ought to be known thoroughly by every child who lived in that part of Germany. This district certainly offers many allurements for school rambles with its miles of pine forests, wooded hills, winding valleys, castles, and mountain heights, its rich historical associations connected with the Thüringen sagas, the Crusades, and Luther, its literary associations, which Goethe and Schiller have left behind them, its geographical illustrations of mountain, river, valley, &c., and its rich opportunities for studying plant and animal life. Frequently the journeys extended beyond the Thüringian Forest into Bavaria, the Harz Mountains, the Rhine district, and even into Italy and the Tyrol. Through Stoy's influence the practice of introducing the school journey into the ordinary school work became widely extended, for students from the seminar carried into practice Stoy's methods in various parts of Germany.

Ziller, in his pamphlet "Zur Theorie pädagogischer Reisen," declares that the journeys are of threefold importance in education*: —

1. They help to establish a close relationship between teacher and pupil, which bond has a deep influence on the child's mind.
2. The journey influences the character of the child, because it gives the teacher an opportunity of studying the individuality of the boys, when the pressure of school

* For further information on the history of the Schulreise, students are referred to "Die Schulreise als organisches Glied im Plane der Erziehungsschule," by Herr Rektor Scholz, and "Zur Theorie pädagogischer Reisen," by Ziller.

life is removed, and the pupils are free and natural; and it gives the boys opportunities for testing their endurance, courage, strength, and self-reliance. It also gives them duties to perform for others.

3. The school journey is a valuable intellectual exercise, because it helps the children to see, to observe and reflect upon what they see, and to carry their knowledge acquired on the journey into the class-room and to influence their daily studies.

I intend to consider two school journeys in detail: one was taken under the leadership of Herr Scholz, the director of the school at Blankenhain, and the other from the Pedagogical Seminar in Jena, under the direction of Dr. Rein, the professor of pedagogy. Blankenhain is a little town in the heart of a great pine forest about a dozen miles from Weimar. It contains under 3,000 inhabitants. The school is a primary school, and has to contend with all the difficulties of a primary school in a small town where money is not plentiful. Herr Scholz holds very definite views with regard to the educational value of school journeys, and in spite of the difficulties which a poorly-equipped school must contend with, he determines that the children shall have the best possible training, and therefore school journeys are a necessity. The journey I am about to describe took place in July 1895. It lasted three days; it included visits to Arnstadt, Schwarzathal, and Rudolstadt, all of which are in the Thüringian Forest.

I.—*The Preparations for the Journey.*

In order to raise the necessary funds the boys who intended to take part in the journey brought a small subscription to school every Monday morning for three months beforehand. These journeys cost exceedingly little, and it is not very difficult even for poor parents to provide the money in this way.

(*a.*) The aim of the journey was imparted to the boys some weeks before the journey took place. They were informed very definitely concerning their route, and the towns they were to visit. It is considered a very necessary part of the preparation that the children shall clearly know what they are to do.

(*b.*) A map of the journey was drawn by each boy, showing the road they were to take, the towns, the chief physical features, and points of interest in the journey.

(*c.*) The points of interest indicated on the map were discussed in a series of lessons set apart for this purpose. The matter was chiefly recapitulation, as the projected journey was in very close connection with the school instruction, and during the months of May, June, and July the Thüringian Forest furnished the geographical, historical, literary, and scientific matter discussed in the class.

(*d.*) The most important points brought out in these special lessons were entered in the boys' note-books, *e.g.* :—

"Arnstadt, 1,200 inhabitants. Residence of the Duke of Schwarzburg. Castle. Old town hall. Beautiful church. Industries, chiefly agricultural. Grain and wood markets."

These entries were so arranged that the boys had plenty of room to enter their own remarks and observations under the summaries during the journey.

(*e.*) Two days before the journey the boys assembled before the schoolhouse to have their travelling suits and bags examined, and to be drilled and taught the rules of the journey.

Herr Scholz lays down in his pamphlet the necessary outfit of each boy as follows :—"A complete woollen suit, not too light " and in good order. Stout, good shoes, not new ; laced ones " are to be preferred."

Contents of Knapsack.

2 shirts with collars.
2 pair stockings.
3 pocket-handkerchiefs.
1 pair of house shoes (leather ones are best).
1 neckerchief.
1 towel.
Soap, wash flannel, and comb.
Overcoat or umbrella.

For the *common use* :—Clothes brushes and shoebrushes, needles, thread, string, and pins, ointment for rubbing on the feet, a small medicine chest, a compass, a field-glass, a pocket microscope, a barometer, and a tape measure.

I was fortunate enough to come upon the final step in the preparation accidentally. I was emerging from the forest when I was attracted by sounds of drilling coming from the schoolhouse, and on reaching the spot I found about fifty boys from twelve to fifteen years of age arranged four abreast, with their knapsacks upon their backs, undergoing a very searching examination. Anxious mothers, and brothers and sisters, stood in the background. The master pointed out a button missing here, coat too thin there, and unsatisfactory shoes in another place. The drilling was excellent. Various offices were assigned to the boys, and companions were chosen for the journey.

The Journey.

1*st Day.*—The party assembled in front of the school-house at one o'clock. Parents, friends, and villagers came also to witness the departure. Small brothers and sisters looked admiringly at the big boys equipped for the journey, and careful mothers gave the last finishing touch to their boys' collars or hair. The master gave a short and impressive address, chiefly advising the boys to be friendly and polite in all their intercourse with

people whom they would meet on the way; after which the whole party sang—

"Wer nur den lieben Gott lässt walten
Und hoffet auf ihn alle Zeit,
Den wird er wunderbar erhalten
In aller Not und Traurigkeit.
Wer Gott dem Aller höchsten traut,
Den hat auf keinen Sand gebaut."

Then the boys said good-bye to their parents, and tears were in many mothers' eyes when the last greeting was over. The marching order was given, the drummer and fifer played vigorously, the party shouldered their umbrellas, and marched on to the woods, singing—

"In die Ferne möcht'ich ziehen."

When they were tired of singing they whistled one or two patriotic tunes, which went very well with their steady marching. The doctor and one of the merchants of the town accompanied the party as spectators, and I, with the wife of the schoolmaster, followed as interested visitors. The company was broken up into groups of four. These groups were to march together, eat together, and sleep together during the whole journey. They had a free choice in selecting their comrades, and these groups were arranged among the boys themselves. One group of four boys formed the vanguard; they marched ahead and led the way, and nobody was permitted to go before them, even when the marching order was broken up and the boys wandered freely through the forest. Another group of four boys formed the rear guard. Another set of four boys were scouts. It was their business to look out for interesting objects, in order that the attention of the whole party might be drawn to them. When we entered the forest the boys were allowed to ramble on at their ease. They made all kinds of interesting discoveries. One found several caterpillars of a rare kind, and these were carefully put away in the botany tin; another sought for beetles, and another for mosses. The walk through the deep, shady forest, with the long avenues of slender pine trees and dark, shaggy firs was very delightful. At Tannroda the order to halt was given, and we sat down in the shade on the soft moss for 15 or 20 minutes.

The boys spent the time in examining their treasures and chatting over them. After two hours' more walking a halt was made in the village Osthausen, and a meal of bread and sausage and coffee was served all round. The scouts announced that a statue, around which were planted three oak trees, was worth seeing. One of the boys read the inscription aloud, some of them copied it, and some of them sketched it in their note-books. After one hour's rest in this village the march was continued to Arnstadt. On the way the boys were led to observe the fields and the kinds of crops they might expect, the character of the soil, and the different roads; they were asked where the

roads came from and where they led to, and they were required to identify the mountains they saw in the distance, and to name a stream that was passed, and say into which river it flowed. When Arnstadt appeared in view we sat down in a shady place, and the schoolmaster asked for a recapitulation of all that the boys knew of the town, and new historical matter was added and entered in the note-books, *e.g.* :—

The Emperor Otto I. held a Parliament in Arnstadt in 945.
Luther once passed through Arnstadt.
Gustav Adolph dwelt there before the battle of Lützen.
The Russian Emperor stayed there for a short time after the battle of Leipsic.

These points were noted with interest now that the town was in sight, and were thusimpressed upon the boys' minds much better than by a mention of them in school. Not far from Arnstadt is a small village, Dornheim. As we passed through it one of the boys cried out, "There is a memorial stone." We clustered around it, and one of the scouts read the inscription aloud. It was the spot where, shortly before the battle of Leipsic, the three Monarchs, the Emperors of Austria and of Russia and the King of Prussia, met to consult how to act with regard to Napoleon. The boys listened to this story with great attention and entered notes in their note-books, and the artist of the party attempted to draw it. It was 8 o'clock when we reached Arnstadt. The boys were very lively and full of spirits. One boy remarked that the town smelt of india-rubber, and he was gratified to learn on inquiring from a man that an india-rubber factory was close by. It was 9 o'clock when the whole party were seated in a comfortable inn enjoying a good meal of soup, meat, and beer. Then a hymn was sung and the boys and master retired to rest in a big hall filled with straw.

2nd Day.—The boys rose in the morning at a quarter to six. Then there was the boot cleaning and washing in the yard, and breakfast of coffee and rolls at 6.30.

The town of Arnstadt was examined, first the old castle, then the old town hall, and lastly the beautiful church. This is built in half Roman and half Gothic style, and particular attention was called to the windows, the doors, the columns, and the steeple. Legends about steeples formed an interesting theme for stories, which interested the boys, and before we left the church the hymn was sung,—

"Lohe den Herrn, den mächtigen Konig der Ehren."

At 8.15 we started by train for Stadtilm. This is one of the quaintest old towns in the Thüringen, with its wide market and curious old fountains, its ancient wall, and beautiful old church. The boys were interested in a fine viaduct here, they examined it, measured it, and some of them drew it in their note books. In the market place the monument erected to the poet Methfessel was examined and a visit was paid to the old church

which was built in the 11th century and is one of the most beautiful in the Thüringen. Then came a walk through charming country to Paulinzella. The boys were interested in the new railway line which is being made, and we stopped once or twice to talk about it and trace it out on the maps. At Paulinzella, which is a little village of 300 inhabitants, is a beautiful ruin of a Benedictine monastery. It is the finest piece of Romanesque architecture in this part of Germany and was built in 1110. The boys examined it with interest, they described the arches, the pillars, and the windows, and compared them with those in the churches at Arnstadt and Stadtilm. At Paulinzella we took a long rest and ate a meal, and the boys bought postcards and wrote them home. Then we continued the walk through the deep pine woods and by the rushing river until we were near the Schwarzburg. Before we entered the little village of Alterndorf, where we were to stay for the night, the boys washed their feet and bathed in the stream, then they put on clean stockings and came on to the inn. Here was a comfortable hot supper, and after eating, resting, and singing an evening hymn they retired to rest on their beds of straw.

3rd Day.—We started at 7 o'clock in the morning, and sang the morning hymn in the woods. We marched on, shaking the dew off the grass beneath our feet, and the skylarks above making music for our hymn. After a long walk we reached the Trippstein, and from here, above the valley, the finest view of the Schwarzathal is obtained. The children stood silently regarding the beautiful valley with the Schwarza winding along the bottom and the castle on the hill. This is one of the finest pieces of scenery in the whole of Thüringen. After a while the boys began to talk about the points of interest, and the master explained various things to them. Then one of the boys recited in a loud clear voice the poem—

"Thüringen, du holdes Land,
Wie ist mein Herz dir zugewandt."

This came as a surprise, for the other children did not know the poem. Before we left this beautiful outlook, we all sang the National Song of Thüringen:—

"Ach, wie ist's möglich dann,
Dass ich dich lassen kann
Wo meine Wiege stand
Thüringer Land."

Then we descended to Schwarzburg and made our way to the castle. The boys were interested in observing the number of hotels and the visitors. We climbed the castle hill and went into the castle to examine the armour, especially that which had been used in the 30 Years' War and the Franco-German war. Afterwards we walked through the lovely valley of the Schwarza, sometimes singing and sometimes stopping to look at the river and the fish, the steep grey rocks, and the fine old

trees. We sat down and had a long rest in the forest and told Thüringen stories, and before we left it all the boys decorated their hats with green boughs from the Schwarzathal. Then they turned to say farewell and give a final cheer. At Blankenburg we stopped to see the Froebel monument, and the house where Froebel lived when he established the first Kindergarten. At 3 o'clock we took the train to Schwarza and walked on from there to Volkstedt to Rudolstadt. Schiller's wife came from Volkstedt, and the poet himself once lived there when he was collecting the materials for "The Song of the Bell." At Rudalstadt the boys all bought little presents for their mothers and sisters, and then we walked on to Amalstedt, where a pleasant surprise awaited us. The father of one of the boys awaited us there with big waggons to convey us back to Blankenhain. This saved a three hours' walk, and the journey back through the evening summer-scented lanes was very delightful, and songs and the music of our drummer and fifers kept us very lively. It was 11 o'clock when we came into Blankenhain, and the whole village was waiting to greet us. But we arrived in an orderly fashion in spite of the lateness of the hour, for after scrambling out of the waggons the boys marched to the school, and there the master addressed a few earnest words to the boys and parents and friends before the party broke up. There was a healthy, earnest, hearty tone about the whole expedition that compelled one to have faith in such school journeys. The uses to which the knowledge gained during the journey was put to must not be forgotten. In the later lessons in history, literature, and geography frequent illustrations were cited from the journey, and the essays and compositions which the boys produced concerning their travel were very creditable and showed much observation.

School Journey from the Pedagogical Seminary, Jena, May 1896.

This seminary is conducted by Dr. Rein on Herbartian principles. The system of pedagogy discussed in the University is demonstrated in the practice school. The yearly journey is considered a necessary part of the physical, moral, and intellectual training of the boys. The choice of the journey is determined by the historical, geographical, botanical, industrial and other interesting features of the selected district. The studies in the school are carefully correlated, and history is the predominating feature; but in the journey undertaken in the Rhön district, geography received a great deal of attention, because the boys had been studying the Rhöngebirge as a part of their geographical instruction during the year. History, however, was the more important, as the period which the boys had studied was the life of Boniface. The Rhöngebirge is a mountainous part of Bavaria, and the journey, which lasted six days, was undertaken by boys of the fourth school year, whose ages were from ten to thirteen years.

the boys in case they became separated from their party. They were directed to go to the railway station, or to put themselves in the care of a policeman, or to go to the school and ask for the schoolmaster, in every case they were told to ask to be sent back to Jena.

In the conference of teachers and students, offices were assigned to various individuals for certain days and certain boys were handed over to certain students to study their dispositions during the journey, the peculiarities of temperament of these boys were to be entered afterwards in the individuality book in the seminar.

The officers for each day were:—

1. Guide.
2. Rear guard.
3. Quartermaster.
4. Reporter.

The duty of the guide was to lead the way, and to stop at interesting places to impart information.

The rear guard always came last, and encouraged the stragglers.

The quartermaster made the arrangements for meals and lodging, and paid the bills.

The reporter wrote a detailed account of the day's proceedings with criticisms. These reports were read afterwards in the seminary conference in Jena and entered in the report book.

The Journey.

The party consisted of boys, masters, and 16 Seminar students of various nationalities, including three women.

1st Day.—We left Jena by train at 6.50 a.m. We halted at Weimar and saw the Goethe and Schiller statue. At 8.44 we went on by train to Neudietendorf, where another halt was made in order to see the Moravian settlement and church there. The boys sang a hymn in the church, and the master repeated the morning prayer. At 11 o'clock we went on again by train to Neustadt. The trains were extremely slow, as they usually are in Germany, but as we were going at a specially cheap rate we could only travel by the slowest trains. The boys looked through the windows at the scenery, and were interested in passing through a tunnel. Some of them settled down to write in their note books. At 11.30 we made a meal of bread and sausage, and drank water at a railway station, and when the boys became weary of the journey we played guessing games and asked riddles.

At 2.55 we reached Neustadt, and we climbed the hill to the castle. Here definite instruction was given on the history of the place, the old wall, and the old German windows, and fragments of the pillars were examined; and the armoury and Kaisersaal were especially described. There was a fine view from the castle hill, and the Kreuzberg was pointed out, where we were to spend the next night. We left Neustadt at 6.40 and arrived at Bishofsheim at 8.30. We were hot, dusty, tired, and hungry, and were very glad to get to our inn, to wash and

anticipate supper. The boys were lively and merry, and after a meal of warm soup, bread, and eggs, they were quite ready for a little evening ramble in the queer old crooked streets of Bishofsheim. They sang a hymn afterwards, and went to bed in the dancing hall, which was filled with straw. One of the masters slept with them. After the boys had retired a conference was held on the events of the day and the arrangements for the morrow.

2nd Day.—The boys were called at 5.30. They cleaned their shoes, and washed in tubs of water in the yard. After a hymn and grace, coffee and bread was served, but no butter. At 7 o'clock we started. We had a charming walk, through dewy meadows speckled with wild orchids, and cool, green beech woods, where lilies of the valley grew, then on through the dark pines to the brown coal mine. We examined the lignite and found many specimens with impressions of ferns and leaves, but the greatest delight of all was sitting in little trucks and burrowing right into the mountain through the narrow tunnels to the gangways where the miners worked. We carried candles, and we had to bend our heads low as we passed through the dripping, rocky passages. Then came a second walk through high woodlands to the basalt works, and as we returned to the village we visited a wood-carving workshop in order to see the home industry of the people of the Rhön.

We rested for two hours at the inn, and ate a midday meal. At 4 o'clock we marched out of the town and began to ascend the Kreuzberg, the second highest point in the Rhöngebirge. We carried our knapsacks, and they grew heavier and heavier as we toiled on in the hot sun. We stopped to rest in shady places, and to watch the flocks of geese and the young calves sunning themselves on the hillside. We reached the three crosses, and stayed to admire the fine view of the valley, and to learn our bearings. It was evening when we reached the monastery at the top. The kindly monks welcomed us and offered us hospitality. The evening meal of rice soup, bread, eggs, and home-brewed beer was served in the long refectory overlooking the monastery garden. After supper we climbed to the observatory on the summit to catch the last glow of the sunset.

3rd Day.—The boys went up to the top of the hill early in the morning to see the sunrise, and after breakfast at the monastery we started on our way at 7 o'clock to Dammersfeld, which is the third highest point in the Rhön district. Our way lay through woodlands and open moorland. A good deal of observation took place. The map was used, the roads discussed, the plants that grew at a high level were compared with those that grew in the valley. The wood anemones, for example, were blooming on the Kreuzberg, but the blossoms were all over in the valley. From the Dammersfeld a good view of the Rhön was obtained. The boys were able to make out the position of Fulda, the Wasserkuppe (the highest point in the Rhöngebirge), the Milseburg, the Steinwand, the Kreuzberg, and other interesting places connected with our journey.

At mid-day we took the train to Fulda. Here we rested in the shady garden of our inn and then we visited the old tower—from whence we obtained a good view, and were able to make out some of the mountains—the statue of Boniface, which brought up historical associations, and the cathedral, with the grave of Boniface, which was an interesting study to the boys, who had never been in a Roman Catholic church before. As we had mountain climbing and a hard day on the morrow, the boys went to bed early.

4th Day.—We left Fulda at 6.30, and took the train to Biberstein, and from there began to ascend the Milseburg. This is one of the most beautiful of the Rhön mountains. Its form is that of a long, three-sided pyramid, with a broken, craggy summit. Our path was steep, and the surroundings were wild. Blocks of basalt lay strewn around us, and dark rugged crags were above us. It became colder as we got higher, and our appetites grew sharp. We sat on the rough basaltic rocks, and ate a second breakfast of black bread flavoured with carraway seeds, and the black sausage, while a few hungry goats came down to us and waited to be fed with scraps. The air became colder, mists wrapped themselves around the crags above us, and a drizzling rain began to fall. We took out our rugs and coats and went on our way. We were damp and depressed when we reached the top, but we found a wooden hut here and an attendant who sold beer. The Englishwomen carried tea, and very soon enough of this beverage was brewed to serve the whole party. After an hour or two the mists cleared away, the sun broke out, and we had a magnificent view. We made out the Wasserkuppe, the Dammersfeld, the Steinwand, and the Kreuzberg, which had begun to appear as familiar friends to us. We examined the shrine and the little chapel which was perched up there in solitude, and after a light mid-day meal we descended through a beech wood on the other side. Our walk over open, upland pasture lands and woods to the Steinwand was pleasant. The Steinwand is a mass of basaltic columns which forms an enormous wall. The boys were directed to observe and examine the rocks. They compared hornblende, clinkstone, granite, basalt, and sandstone, and had a little talk over them with one of the masters. From the top of the Steinwand we caught a glimpse of our familiar Kreuzberg. The walk from the Steinwand along an upward winding valley was very pleasant; we seemed to go all round the Milseburg, and we looked at this isolated pyramid-shaped mass from many points of view. Our attention was again and again directed to the groups of curiously-rounded wooded hills, which are so characteristic of this part of the Rhön. It became colder as we got higher, and all our wraps were needed. One boy cried with cold, and as he had no wrap, an Englishman of the party gave him his overcoat. The boys were directed to observe the flowers and to compare them with those in their own valleys surrounding Jena, and the hillside fields were also

compared with those in the more fertile valley of the Saale. We were on our way to the Wasserkuppe, which is the highest point in the Rhöngebirge, and we intended to sleep on the summit, but when we arrived at Absröda, a poor little village, above which the summit of the Wasserkuppe rose, a messenger met us to say that there was not accommodation for the whole party at the top. This was a great disappointment; we were hungry and cold, and the village was not inviting. The chief inn was very primitive. It consisted of a single living room with a bed-room opening out of it, and a kitchen which had better not be described. The beds were simple straw bundles in many cases, and the washing apparatus consisted of buckets, which we filled ourselves at the village well. The meal of sour ham, scrambled eggs fried in unsavoury fat, and coarse bread, was not very appetising. The boy who had cried with cold was sick, and we gave him bread and milk and put him to bed at once. Another boy had an irritating sore on his neck which was bathed and attended to. This was our worst experience. We hoped to comfort ourselves with a cup of tea during our evening conference, but the only water we could obtain to make it was the water in which the eggs had been boiled. We held the conference in the squalid living room of the inn, and during the discussion the host and his family and servant ate their evening meal in the same room out of a single earthern dish with iron spoons. But, as one of the masters remarked, the boys learnt the simplicity of rural village life, so our experiences may have been fruitful.

5th Day.—The next day was Sunday. At 6.30 we were on our way over the shoulder of the Wasserkuppe looking for the source of the River Fulda. Cows with their tinkling bells were grazing on the mountain slopes, but otherwise everything was still. We stopped at a stream, and the boys bathed their feet and paddled with keen enjoyment. At the source of the Fulda we had an animated geography lesson; we drank some of the pure, clear water, and the boys sent a greeting to the North Sea. Then came a long march through beech woods and over high moorland to Wüstensachen. This is a very poor Roman Catholic village, and, as one of the chief Church festivals of the year was taking place, we remained to see the procession. We ordered a meal in the simple inn and put the sick boy to bed for a couple of hours. The women of the inn were dressing the daughter of the host in white, and decking her with flower garlands. She was to take a chief part in the procession. The boys watched the procession come out of the church and parade the village streets. We took up a position opposite one of the simple little shrines, decked with wild flowers. It was an impressive sight to see the whole village population on their knees in the streets when the priest stopped at this shrine, and one little fellow whispered, "Roman Catholics are not heathens." At 3 o'clock we marched again. First we climbed a steep hill, and then walked over the high plateau of the Rhön to Franken-

heim, which is the highest village in the whole district. The way lay over a peat moor, and specimens of peat were shown to the boys and compared with the brown coal at Bishofsheim. The boggy plants were also studied. The plateau was examined, and this part of the Rhön was compared with the hilly district. Frankenheim is one of the poorest villages in the Rhön; the soil is unfruitful, the houses are poor little huts with moss roofs, consisting of one room, and for the most part they have no chimneys. The smoke of the peat fire comes out at the door and windows. These houses excited the keenest interest in the boys as we passed them. The accommodation at Frankenheim was simple and primitive.

6th Day.—After breakfast at 5.30 the party walked from Frankenhain to Hilders in the early morning. At 8.44 we took the train from Hilders to Tann. Here we saw the beautiful Evangelical Church. Above the village we stopped to see the sheep-shearing in an open shed. Men and women were employed in this work. They showed us stockings made of home-spun wool. We rested later in a beech wood, and made a meal of bread and sausage, and then walked on to Zella, staying on the way to see wooden pipes being made, and to visit a little wood-carving workshop. We had a mid-day meal at Zella, milk-soup, meat and salad, and at 2 o'clock we took the train to Salzungen. It was a long, slow, hot journey, and we were glad to walk in the fresh air at Salzungen, and drink coffee in the shade of acacia trees. Time did not permit us to see the salt mine. We took train again to Eisenach, where we waited for an hour, and visited the Luther monument. The rest of the journey home was rendered pleasant by games and songs. It was 10 o'clock at night when we reached the familiar valley of the Saale, and the home sights began to appear. The boys were excited and happy, and there were many joyful meetings as they sprang out on to the platform. Mothers, fathers, sisters, brothers and friends were assembled there to welcome back the sunburnt, plucky, hardy little fellows who had gone through so many adventures.

The cost of this school journey was 174 marks 95 pfennigs (8*l.* 15*s.*), or about 15*s.* for each boy. This included railway fares lodging, food, and all expenses during the six days' journey.

The working through the materials gathered on the journey in school afterwards was a valuable experience. The impressions of the various scenes were arranged in an orderly manner, discussed in class with the teacher, and finally written in the form of composition exercises by each boy. During the months of June and July these discussions and compositions took place twice each week.

I was present at some of them, and I was very much astonished to find that the boys had such clear, vivid impressions, and had retained so much. I went into the class on July 28th, nearly two months afterwards, and I found them discussing Fulda. The boys first asserted that Fulda was in a Catholic land, and they referred to wayside shrines, the

procession at Wüstensachen, and the saints in the churches to prove this. The account of Fulda was summed up under three headings:—

1. A general view of the town.
2. The churches.
3. The other buildings.

Under the first heading they compared the size of Fulda with the size of Jena. Fulda has 12,000 inhabitants, Jena has 16,000 inhabitants, therefore Fulda is smaller than Jena. Fulda is a very old town, older than Jena, but it contains very few old buildings. The streets are wide and new, and the houses are chiefly fine new houses. Jena has many old, narrow, crooked streets and old houses.

Under the second head they described the cathedral with surprising minuteness. The teacher drew a rough plan of it on the blackboard, and the boys described the chapels, the pictures, and the crypt, containing the tomb of Boniface, with great accuracy. They appeared to have been impressed with the cupola, and the two towers, and they mentioned various points of detail in connexion with the building which I had never observed, or had entirely forgotten.

Under the third heading the boys gave a description of the old castle. One boy drew a rough plan of it on the black-board with the court yard in front. Before the castle stands the statue of Boniface. This statue was carefully described: "Boniface stands holding up the cross in his right hand to "signify the Christian religion, and the Bible in his left hand "to show the source of the Christian religion" said one boy, and another little fellow remarked, "He wore a cloak which "fell back in many folds."

Boniface played an important part in the year's history course, therefore Fulda was an especially interesting part of the journey. These discussions with the master after the school journey, for the purpose of deepening and fixing the impressions, appeared to me to be one of the most valuable parts of the whole work. They brought out all the boys' observations, which were often wonderfully detailed and vivid, and the experience of one boy supplemented those of another boy. I constantly felt that my own observations were meagre and unsatisfactory when I heard the boys describing the scenes through which we had passed.

The following is a composition on the town of Fulda, written by a boy of 10 years of age:—

Fulda.

"Fulda is smaller than Jena. It is beautifully situated; the town is surrounded on every side by the Rhön mountains. It is a very old town, but the houses were destroyed in war, and therefore few old houses remain. The castle is the oldest building. The cathedral is very beautiful and is decorated with pictures; it contains the grave of Boniface.

"In the courtyard of the cathedral is a priests' seminary. In the priests' church we saw people praying, but no priest was there. There are confessional boxes in the church where the people go to confess their sins. From the tower we had a beautiful view, and we saw the Wasserkuppe. There is a new evangelical church in Fulda built of sandstone. The statue of Boniface is large and handsome. He holds a cross in one hand and a Bible in the other. We saw a pillar which was erected in memory of the plague, which caused the death of many people. We passed by the nunnery where the nuns live. On the garden wall there were statues of saints. We looked at the town gate. Two pictures were painted on it, one of a child stealing sweets and the other of the punishment"

It would be quite easy to offer many criticisms on the school journey as carried out in Germany; for instance, I was convinced that the marches were sometimes too long, and that it was a mistake to have the chief and only hot meal at night; but these are trivial points. I do not think that any teacher who has watched the whole plan and method of such a journey could doubt its educational value, and in the matter of out-of-doors instruction, and the proper use of historical materials, our schools have much to learn from Germany.

The German teacher, whatever his failings may be, is fully convinced with Shakespeare, that he may find—

> "tongues in trees, books in the running brooks,
> Sermons in stones,"

and he takes his pupils with him into the fields and forests, that they may learn to recognise and interpret the teachings of Nature. The English teacher finds it difficult to realise that useful studies can take place outside the class-room. He believes in honest, hearty, play, and encourages it in the playground and football and cricket fields, but excursions planned for the purpose of imparting useful information to his pupils, he regards with the same kind of good-natured scorn that we bestow upon the methods of good Mr. Barlow in "Sandford and Merton" of our childhood. Travel has had an honoured place in the theoretical, ideal education since the days of Locke, and in our philanthropic schemes to give culture to those who are past school age, we recognise excursions as an educational means readily enough. Our university extension schemes, our university settlements, our boys' and girls' clubs, and our various travelling clubs and societies all seek to afford means for helping people to see beautiful buildings and beautiful scenery, but as yet no carefully planned schemes have been prepared for making travel an essential part of the educational instruction of the children of the people.

If we could only get the children out of the class-rooms into the open air for many of the object lessons, we should have made a good step forward towards accomplishing a school journey.

Many of our schools contain school museums which furnish useful illustrations for lessons—specimens of corn, tadpoles, roots, chalk, fossils, leather, cotton, &c. Would it not be possible to arrange outdoor courses of lessons, instead of always keeping the children in the class-rooms to study these things? In the country there would be no difficulty in taking the children into a corn field to count the grains of corn on a single stem, or into a stone quarry, or to walk to a moorland stream or pond to study the masses of jelly and tadpole eggs, or to seek examples of fibrous roots and tap roots, &c., and compare them and describe them afterwards in the class-room. In towns, children would receive their lessons on cotton, silk, leather, or iron, with healthier interest if they were first taken to a cotton mill, a silk factory, a tan yard, or an iron foundry.

In connexion with our history reading and teaching, we might make use of the illustrative material we possess in the beautiful old churches which are scattered up and down the country, the old castles, the battle-fields, and the statues which commemorate great events and great men.

The windows, doorways, pillars, and decorations of the buildings would afford the children interesting studies if they were taught how to observe them, and if the historical events of their own neighbourhood were carefully worked out in school, their interest would be aroused and the knowledge gained would be living and lasting. The Free Trade Hall in Manchester, for instance, could be associated with the repeal of the Corn Laws, and Reading Abbey with the destruction of the monasteries. The Roman occupation in Britain could be brought home to Reading children by visits to the Reading Museum, and an excursion to Silchester. They could realise the lives of the Romans when they saw the mosaic pavements, the tiles, pottery, glass, needles, thimbles, hair-pins, hooks, and lamps in the museum, and after a walk through the Hampshire lanes to Silchester with its old wall, amphitheatre, basilica, houses, stones, pavements, and oyster shells, they would form a clear impression of a Roman town. In connexion with such historical study, "Julius Cæsar" would form suitable literary matter, and the children would read Shakespeare's play with an interest, and clearness of thought which, without the concrete ideas gained in the museum and at Silchester, would be impossible.

The visits to museums, picture galleries, zoological gardens, and so on, which are recognised as a school attendance, open up a way for a great deal of helpful and suggestive work in schools; but these visits cannot be successfully undertaken without much expenditure of time and thought on the part of the teacher.

1. With regard to the choice of the visits, only such visits should be selected as furnish concrete ideas and deepen and strengthen impressions which the child has gained in the ordinary school work.

2. Proper preparation for the visit must be made during the ordinary school lessons. The children must know definitely what they are going to see, and what particular points of detail they must look for.

3. Explanations must be given on the spot by the class teacher, and the associations with previous work must be clearly brought out.

4. Time must be allowed afterwards for reflective work on the part of the child, and he must be helped to arrange his new impressions in order, and to put them into definite form in a short composition exercise.

To show a child a large number of new objects or pictures without any definite aim in view, and with no connexion to his previous work, only confuses him. I questioned a boy of 12 who had been taken through the British Museum, in order to find out what he had gained. He was embarrassed by my questions, and vaguely said he had seen stone men with wings, but finally his eyes brightened and he added, "and some jolly stuffed birds." The birds appealed to him more than anything else, because he already possessed some ideas concerning birds and he understood them.

Longer excursions of several days require to be carefully planned at the beginning of the school year, and to be kept in mind throughout the whole instruction in order that all points of association may be noticed.

England is rich in districts which would offer valuable school journeys. Classes of Manchester children could spend four or five days in the Peak district; they could visit Haddon Hall, Chatsworth, Bakewell Church, walk over the moors, study Kinder Scout, and climb one of the high points, thus collecting many concrete ideas which would help to make clear their historical, geographical, and natural-history studies. London children could make a delightful journey to Kew, Hampton Court, Windsor, Eton, Stoke Poges Church, and Burnham Beeches, and gather impressions which would probably influence their choice of reading in after life. The German child's interest in Ludwig, Siegfried, Boniface, and Luther is living and genuine. He has seen the Wartburg and walked through the streets of Eisenach, and has seemed to live in the heroic days of Ludwig and the troubled times of Luther. The statue of Boniface and his grave in the Cathedral at Fulda bring him near to the holy man and gives him a lasting interest in his life and his times.

It would not be difficult to criticise many things in German methods of education, but in spite of the defects there is much in these methods that is instructive to us. The Germans make an earnest and an honest attempt to put the child into proper relations with his environment and with mankind. Other matters are of less importance. They work slowly and very thoroughly; every step must be perfectly clear to the child before he may go on. They are in no haste to make the child learn how to work sums correctly, but he must understand the

arithmetical principles, and that is a slow process. Even learning to read and write are matters of secondary importance, but infinite pains are taken in helping children to see, and to talk about what they see. Dates do not matter much in the history study, but the children must realise the worth of great men and their influence upon the history of their land. The length of a river and the names of all its tributaries are minor matters, but the child must know why it flows in certain directions and why great towns are built on its banks. The aim of German primary education is to make children see truly, think clearly, and speak and write intelligently about what they see and think, and the school journey furthers this aim.

CATHERINE I. DODD,
Training Department,
The Owens College,
Manchester.

The Teaching of the Mother-Tongue in Germany.*

Synopsis of Contents.

Classification of schools into higher and lower.
The Lower Schools.
First lessons in reading—the *Normal-Word* System.
Exercises in *oral expression*. Anschauungs-Unterricht.
Time devoted to the study of German.
The Reading-Books—the pieces selected.
Their chief characteristics and advantages.
A Reading Lesson.
Its method. Illustration.
Disadvantages and advantages. *The principle of co-ordination.*
Explanation of new words and phrases.
The place of model-reading by the teacher.
The teachings of voice-production and emphasis.
The Instruction in Grammar.
Its history and its abolition as an independent subject.
The native terminology.
Grammar-teaching by sound.
Analysis—the use of the blackboard.
The questions employed.
Historical grammar. The use of dialect.
The Instruction in Composition.
Its connexion with reading and grammar.
The oral method.
Word-building.
Final criticism of German methods in the lower schools.
The Higher Schools.
History of instruction in German. Time devoted to it.
The syllabus in the lower classes.
The connexion with Latin and the classics.
The Teaching of Literature.
Syllabus in the higher classes.
Principles of selection. Co-ordination with the classics.
The use of philosophic poems.
Treatment of a piece as a work of art.
Oral expression in the higher classes. The Vortrag.
The Teaching of Middle High German.
The use of dialect in comparative grammar.
The Essays.
Cultivation of style. The use of logic.
Choice of subjects. "Universal" themes.
Comparison of German essay with English.

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* In presenting this report I wish to express my thanks to many German writers and teachers—especially to Professor Rein of the University of Jena, to whose kindness I was indebted for much valuable information; Hofrath Richter, Directors Zachau and Ufer, Professor Wychgram, and many other teachers, who kindly allowed me to be present at their lessons.

The Teaching of the Mother-Tongue in Germany.

Throughout Germany the mother-tongue has long been recognised as one of the most important branches of study; "next to the instruction in religion," says a Prussian Ministerial Circular, "that in German is the most valuable as a training "both for the character and the intellect." In the programme of every school, therefore, from the Volksschule to the Gymnasium, it will be found as a separate subject, with certain definite hours allotted to it. For the purposes of this report, however, it will not be necessary to adopt any elaborate classification of the various grades and kinds of schools existing in Germany; a simple division into "primary" and "secondary" will prove sufficient. The variations in the matter and methods of the teaching naturally flow for the most part from the variation in the age and attainments of the scholars received in the two classes of schools; on the one side, the lower, with pupils from 6 to 14 years of age; on the other, the higher, where the education is continued in many cases till the twentieth year. The internal organisation which differentiates the kinds of secondary school is here not of such importance as to justify their separate treatment. Thus the great distinction between the Real-Schule and the Gymnasium, for example, though it is not without significance for the instruction in German, will only need occasional mention. Nor, again, need a line be expressly drawn (as would perhaps be necessary in England) between boys' and girls' schools. There, too, certain differences in the selection of material will call for notice, but the fact that the director and the teacher in German schools for girls are commonly men with the same qualifications and training as those in the corresponding institutions for boys necessarily secures a great similarity in methods. Indeed, even the distinction adopted, though the most convenient, must not be too rigorously pressed. The top forms of a Higher Bürger-Schule and the lowest of a Gymnasium are in this subject very much on a level, and a boy would find little or no difficulty in passing from one to the other. Similarly, those higher schools for girls and private institutions which receive children from their first school-year can in their lower forms be ranked with the Volksschule.

The first year is naturally occupied for the most part in teaching the child to read and write. This preparation for the future instruction, in view both of the great step forward it involves and the peculiar difficulties attending it, may be best considered separately. It is a subject which has received special attention from many German teachers and writers on education, as may be conjectured from the fact that no fewer than seven systems have found advocates. Of these I have selected for description the one, which is very common in Saxony and is still spreading, the *Normal-Word* System. It deserves to be mentioned in this report, for the principles which govern its construction are the same as will be found working throughout the whole

of German instruction; above all, the principle that the matter set before the child must from the first be interesting in content. Originated by a private teacher of adults, Jacotot, it was introduced into wide use by the efforts of Vogel, a head-master in Leipzig, and the only serious rival it possesses, the "Schreib-Lese" method, is largely governed by the same principles.

The reading-books for the first school year—I take those in Saxe-Weimar as a type—contain on their first 32 pages 32 normal-words in printed and cursive characters, both German and Latin. These words are such as in the first place express an object familiar to the children and illustrated by a picture; and next, contain the most important sounds represented by the "normal" symbols, *e.g.*, Hut, Fisch, Larve, Grab. Round each of them are grouped words containing the same or nearly the same sounds. To the word "Larve," for instance, besides a picture of a boy with a mask, are attached first the component sounds of the word a e ar La er arv Lar Larv-arve, and also "vor voll brav vorn Eva Veilchen." The only other instrument employed is a Lese-Maschine, a board on which the separate letters printed on cardboard can be put up before the class.

The first part of the instruction is purely oral; the teacher states the word to be read, and usually adds a few questions calculated to rouse the children's interest in the object represented by it. He then repeats the word slowly, calling on the class to distinguish the component sounds in it. His mouth is thus their book, and it is not till the children have attained facility in picking the syllables out by the ear that the instruction proper begins.

He now has the first sound-element as heard in the spoken word repeated by one child after another, while he points to the corresponding letter or letters as arranged on the reading-machine; the same is done with the second and third till each element has been rehearsed. Then they are put together, and the word is at once read. The syllables or letters learnt are then found and practised in other words, great use being made throughout of simultaneous reading by the whole class, and finally the children, who have had some previous practice in drawing elementary curves and strokes, copy the word on their slates.

The essential characteristics of the method may therefore be stated as these. (i.) It entirely discards the *names* of the letters and concerns itself solely with their *sound*; to use an expression frequent in German works, it claims to teach reading through reading. For when the component sounds are read together, the whole word is always read, and it is only necessary to put sounds already gained in a different combination in order to produce fresh words, *e.g.*, if "Horn" follows Hof and Hirt, the scholars already know H, o, r, and Ho. To join together the names of the letters, on the contrary, does not, save by accident, produce an intelligible result. (ii.) It begins with complete words which have a meaning interesting in itself to the

children. Here lies its chief difference from the Schreib-Lese method, which prefers to begin with the simplest words, "in," "ein," &c., regardless of their want of significance. (iii.) It stimulates the child's intelligence by allowing him to apply the knowledge won to the detection of the same sounds in other words.

The close connexion between the reading and writing is considered an integral element in any proper method, since mere observation without some action on the part of the child is not sufficient to thoroughly impress the form on its mind, and a division between the teaching of the printed and written characters tends to cause confusion and delay.

That this method is in the main on the right track cannot be doubted by anyone who has watched the advance made by the children thus taught. One great advantage is obvious. From the first they are accustomed to put together syllabic sounds in order to form a word; as a result, the earliest pieces for reading need not be composed of words of only one syllable—with the almost inevitable consequence of insipidity,—nor is there the hesitation so often manifested by English children on being confronted with a word slightly longer than usual.

It is not to be denied, however, that the normal-word system presents difficulties of its own. The normal words, though easy to pronounce, may not be sufficiently easy to be suitable for a first instruction in writing—a defect which is freely admitted by such advocates as Professor Rein. Above all, it rests for its application on the consistency of the language in representing the same sound by the same symbols—a consistency which is very marked in German. In English,* the least "phonetically" regular of languages, there is a distinct danger that the normal words—especially those used for the diphthongal sounds—would have to be swamped by exceptions. But that, as far as possible, children should be taught to associate sounds, not names, with the letters, and that the word read should also be the first word written—these principles must be the foundation of any rational method.

"The instruction in the mother-tongue," says the Saxon law for elementary schools, "should lead the school children to the "understanding and the correct use of the High German lan-"guage; at the same time, it should help to elevate and purify "their feelings by an introduction into our national literature." German, however, is not an isolated subject. It permeates the whole system of instruction, and to divorce it from this universal connexion would be to do scant justice to one of the most valuable sides of German teaching. "If every subject of instruc-"tion," says Dr. Kehr, "is not also instruction in the mother-"tongue, it is impossible to attain the goal of a properly

* An interesting attempt, which well illustrates both the advantages and difficulties of this system, if applied to English, has been made by Miss Anna Snell, late Principal of the Manchester Kindergarten Training School, in her pamphlet "The Teaching of Reading."

"developed feeling for our language.*" The first division of the subject in the German Code is "Exercises in *speaking*"; and this careful and admirable training in oral expression is worthy of special attention.

Fluency and fertility of speech are generally the first points to attract the interest of a visitor at any hour to a German elementary school. It is of frequent occurrence to hear a boy when called upon for an answer speak with but little hesitation for two or three minutes, using grammatical and connected language, and displaying a vocabulary which might have been supposed to be too wide for any but adults. This result is the working, primarily, of a principle which has always lain deep in the German conception of teaching, and which has been reinforced by the influence of Herbart and his followers—the principle that in every lesson the child should take an active part; or, to take the application given as a precept to every Seminar-student, "Let the teacher speak little, the children much."

The foundation of the work is laid from the child's entrance into the school. In the first year with the reading of the normal words is bound up either Anschaungs-Unterricht (a sort of object-lesson), or the narration of Märchen, chiefly Grimm's and Hey's stories. This is followed in schools directly under the Herbartian influence by the "Robinson-Unterricht." The subjects in the first are such as "School and Home," "Garden and Meadow," "Field and Wood," "Life in the Country." The lesson I take as a type was intended partly as a preparation for the spelling of the word "Sonne." A picture representing a scene in harvest time was hung upon the board, and a few questions and answers will best show the extent to which the children are encouraged to talk. From the first no answer is accepted which does not make a complete sentence.

"You have often seen country-people in the streets, have you "not? What are they like?" Various answers were suggested. "They wear ragged clothes; they carry baskets;" until, finally guided by the teacher, a child hit on the desired reply, "Their faces are brown." "Why? What do they do in the "summer?" (pointing to the picture). "They work in the "fields, and the sun makes them brown." "Why?" "Because "it is hot." "Yes, or because it——what else do we say about "the sun in summer?" "It burns." "Yes, or——" "It is "sweltering." These and other synonyms were gradually collected, and finally all repeated by one child; the same was then done with the different expressions for "cold."

The Robinson lessons are much more elaborate; there only the bare outline of the story is known to the children, and the aim is to stimulate their imagination to fill up the details. Their primary purpose, the cultivation of the fancy and the ethical feelings, can be here set aside; but a short quotation will give some idea of their value as a practice in conversation.

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* *See* Kehr "Die Praxis der Volksschule," p. 183 *et seq.*

"And so Robinson on the island was very sad. Why?" "He wished to see his father and mother again." "He was "home-sick." "Yes; and he wished to be at home more often "than before. What had he done before. What did we hear "in our last lesson?" "He had found a hole to shelter himself "from the rain. He had put a big stone in front of it, like a "gate, to keep out the wild beasts, and there he slept." "Yes, "but now what will he do?" "He could walk about the "island." "But if the weather were bad, as it often was?" "He must sit in the hole and wait till it got better." "Did he "like that? Do you like to sit at home while it rains? No; "and you have things Robinson had not?" To this the children suggested—"We have games" . . . "Yes" . . "and "books to read in, and companions to talk to" . . . . .

In the Robinson lessons the characteristics of German instruction are emphasized to a special degree; but my aim is to make it clear that a short sharp fire of questions, directed at scholar after scholar, with brisk answers from them is, as a rule, whatever be the subject, avoided by the German teacher. A lesson partakes more of the nature of a dialogue between the teacher and some scholars, while the interest of the class as a whole is kept up by the knowledge that they will be asked at the close to correct any faults they may have heard. To quote Herr Pickel*: "When "the teacher has given a section of his instruction, he should "ask of the whole class, 'Who can repeat it to me?' One of "the scholars is named, and the teacher allows him to speak "continuously without any interruption. At the end should "follow the question, once more to the whole class—'What has "'he forgotten? Where has he gone wrong?' The narrative "is thus corrected or enlarged. The same scholar as at first "should again repeat the whole. The only interruptions should "be those necessitated by the correction of gross faults of "grammar or expression."

In the higher classes the most common and most valuable exercise in speech is oral paraphrase of a piece from the reading book. The first question, after a few paragraphs have been read, is, "What is the content?" Such a summary is not allowed to be too short; for example, should there be a speech by any person in the story, the scholar is expected, as a rule, to render it not in narrative but dramatic form.

Yet another point, where speaking is practised, is in the revision of a lesson which comes at the beginning of the next hour in the subject. This, again, is always given as a connected narrative by one or more of the scholars. These two exercises —the connection of the parts of a lesson into a whole and the revision—are steps common, so far as my observation goes, to all lessons.

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* Rein, "Theorie und Praxis," Vol. II., p. 23. (The story of Robinson Crusoe assumes a different shape in German school-books from the version familiar to English readers. Full information will be found in Rein *op. cit.*).

At first the children's speeches are very much in the nature of repetition from memory of the words heard or read, and produce, therefore, a curiously unnatural effect. Yet they are the very reverse of valueless for that reason. What prevents children speaking freely in school on some new subject is seldom want of willingness or even want of understanding but poverty of vocabulary; and the view of the German teacher is that to remedy this defect in one's own as in a foreign language it is not sufficient merely to read or hear new expressions. The scholar must be made to bring them, however awkwardly, into his own conversation, and thus to gradually familiarise himself with them. Finally, when it is borne in mind that in *every* hour of the day readiness of speech is to be as far as possible encouraged "by demanding complete answers, by the "connection of the thoughts developed during the lesson, by "frequent repetitions of narratives and descriptions"* the high level of facility and order will be easily understood. It is not fanciful, I think, to ascribe to these exercises much of the fluency and ease in conversation which is commonly noticed among the lower classes in Germany.

The hours devoted especially to German vary from eight per week in the lower classes to six in the upper. The subject can be best grouped as usual under the three heads of reading, grammar, and composition (including orthography); but such a division needs some words of explanation in order to prevent it generating a misunderstanding.

In no time-table will these three be found in isolation, or each allotted to a special hour. The subject is styled simply "German." In the first place, therefore, it lies entirely in the discretion of the teacher to decide, according to his view of the needs of his class, what portion of any given hour shall be devoted to any one of these branches. Such freedom brings in its train undoubted advantages. In the upper classes, for example, he can give the whole time to the reading of some specially difficult piece; he is not forced to break off in the middle in order to pass to grammatical questions; or—a greater gain still—in the lower classes he can avoid the necessity of a continuous grammar-lesson, which is almost bound to be a severe tax on young children, and simply introduce a few questions here and there in the course of reading. Second, it is a subject in the treatment of which a principle always enforced by German theory and practice alike comes to light. The strength of much German teaching lies in the conviction that, so far as possible, apparently divergent subjects should be made to interpenetrate and aid one another. The more difficult question as to the possibility of such co-ordination† in the school curriculum as a

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* Saxon Regulations, p. 254.

† *See, e.g.*, Rein: Theorie und Praxis, Vol. I., p. 63, and *cf.* Comenius' saying as there quoted: "Es kann nichts gediegen sein als was in allen Stücken zusammenhängt."

whole—the question to which the chief efforts of the later Herbartians have been directed—may be put aside, but an instance of its working on a smaller scale lies clearly before us.

Here the end is attained by a unity of material. The centre to which the different paths of instruction in German converge is to be found in the pieces *read*. What is read (to state the case summarily) at once reinforces the work done in other subjects, while it also forms the material within the single subject of German for the teaching of literature, grammar, and composition. The full bearing of this short statement will be more clearly appreciated after a detailed examination of the school reading-books.

The reading-books in Germany—it is almost unnecessary to state—have to receive the sanction of the State before they are introduced. In Saxe-Weimar they are issued direct from the Ministry of Instruction. In Leipzig the one commonly in use has been composed by a commission of head masters. They are printed for the most part of the contents in German type, but with some pieces in ordinary Latin characters.

In a school with eight classes they generally form a series of three or four volumes, increasing in difficulty, the same book thus serving for two consecutive years; and it may be added that in consideration of the quality of the printing and the size of the books they are issued at a remarkably cheap price; the four substantial volumes in Leipzig cost only 4 marks 50 pfg. (about 4*s*. 6*d*.).

On turning to their contents the first characteristic which strikes a foreign observer is undoubtedly their length. They range from 168 large pages in the first year to 330 in the third and fourth volumes, and contain on an average over 250 pieces, varying in length from a half-page in the early stages to three pages in the later.

The prose-pieces deal chiefly with the special subjects of instruction; in the book for the top class history, geography, elementary science (Natur-kunde), and religion are all represented. I may take as typical instances the prose portion of two books, the one used for the last two school-years in Saxe-Weimar; the other is the third volume of the Leipzig series designed for children of about 12 years old. The former has 328 pages, of which about 220 are prose, and the index classifies the subjects as:—I. Narratives and Stories; II. Parables and Fables; III. Saga; IV. Proverbs and Letters; V. Pieces dealing with Natural History; VI. Geographical; VII. Historical—the last three divisions being far longer than the others. In the Leipzig school-book the sections on history, geography, and Natur-kunde form over one half of the 200 prose-pieces.

So far, therefore, as at least half of the contents of any German reading-book is concerned, its function can be described in the words of Herr Pickel* as "to prepare for, deepen, and

* Theorie und Praxis, Vol. III., p. 111.

" bring into a connected whole the various sections of the " general instruction." He continues: " It should, for example, " embrace in history literary products rising out of a period " and about it, through which a glance is opened into the vary- " ing culture of bygone days, namely, historical Saga, poems, " simple historical narratives from the original sources, and, " besides these, descriptions of events (historical pictures) such " as serve both as connecting-links for the instruction and as " models of narrative style. For the geography and Natur- " kunde it should contain descriptions complete in themselves " and beautiful in style, including suitable poems so far as " these can be provided by our literature." How far this statement answers to the facts may be seen by the titles of the pieces selected in the two books mentioned. In the Saxe-Weimar book under the head of " Letters " are to be found a letter of Schiller to his sister, of Herder to his children, and, lastly, of the Emperor William to the Empress Augusta. Under Natur-Kunde fall such subjects as " Spring," " The Lark," " The Bee," " The Barometer," " The Making of Glass, Coal, " Porcelain, and Coffee;" under geography " The Pacific, " Sahara, Dead Sea, America, the Planets, Sun, and Comets." The historical subjects range from the destruction of Jerusalem and the rise of Mohammed, through a glance into a town of the Middle Ages, to extracts from the Life of Luther, with one of his letters, Frederick the Wise, Anecdotes of Frederick the Great, Maria Theresa, the Life of Peter the Great, James Watt, and, finally, 14 pages entirely devoted to extracts from histories recounting the Franco-German War of 1870.

The scope of the pieces in Leipzig is as wide as in Saxe-Weimar. The historical section includes Arminius, the ballads " Siegfried's Sword," and " the Blind King," Charlemagne, Otto the Great, and the Death of Boniface. They pass through extracts from the Life of Luther (including his letter to his son Hans) to pieces on the Life of Frederick the Great, Napoleon, the Battle of Leipzig, and end in like manner with some 12 pages on the events of 1870, " King William at Sedan," " The Entry into Paris," &c.; in all 46 pieces. Geography has 34; such subjects as the North and East Sea, the Erzgebirge, The Earthquake at Lisbon, and a Visit to the London Docks; while 39 deal with Nature, and are divided according to the seasons, under Spring, for example, coming " The Cuckoo, Bees, An Excursion into the Woods in Spring"; under Autumn, " The Potato, the Harvest," &c.; and under Winter " A Winter Day in the Woods," and some pieces on the great German festival, Christmas.

The important influence of a book thus constructed on the general instruction, and on the method of teaching the pieces contained in it, will need attention later; at present it will suffice to bring out more clearly some latent points of interest.

In the first place, one great advantage has been already implied in the quotation given from Herr Pickel. The difficulty

of constructing a good reading book which is not to supplant histories or geographies, but to have pieces purely general in content, is well known. The great writers of a nation have usually dealt with special subjects; their books, as a whole, cannot well be used as text-books even for the older children in an elementary school. And yet extracts from them form the best material for practice in reading, both from the interest of the description and the distinction of their style. This difficulty is escaped in Germany; among the names of the authors, for example, from whom selections in the historical section are taken, appear Ranke, Marquardt, Falke, Otto, the great balladist Uhland, and C. M. Arndt.

The next characteristic is, I think, of the greatest interest and value. It, too, arises in part from the close connexion of the book with the lessons in history and geography.

Heimat-kunde, the knowledge of the home and its surroundings, has, in Germany, owing to the teaching of Pestalozzi, long formed both the starting point and the centre of instruction in both these subjects. Especial notice and praise is due to the manner in which the reading-books support such a treatment.

The primary cause rendering such recognition possible lies in the *local origin* of the books. In Saxe-Weimar they are, as has been said, issued by the Ministry at Weimar. But the smallness of the State, about the size of a large English county, enables the Ministry to be fully in touch with the locality and its needs. The same holds good of Saxe-Altenburg; while in a great State like the Kingdom of Saxony, a large town, such as Leipzig, has its own reading book composed by residents. The result may be judged from the titles of many of the pieces. In the Saxe-Weimar book we have extracts on "The River Saale," "The Church at Jena," "The Thuringian Wood," "Eisenach," "The Wartburg," and, naturally, "The Battle-field of Jena"; in Altenburg one section deals with "Land and People," under which head fall "The Castle of Altenburg," "The Leuchtenburg," &c. For Leipzig are provided both material connected with the Kingdom of Saxony as a whole, *e.g.*, "The Death of Frederick the Wise," "Events in the Youth of Prince Albert of Saxony," "The First Railway in Saxony"; and, second, pieces of special interest to the city, "The Storming of the Grimmaische Door in Leipzig," "Napoleon's retreat from Leipzig in 1813." One great trade of Leipzig is book-selling and printing, and accordingly we have pieces on "The Invention and Development of the Art of Printing," "Book-sellers in Leipzig." The life and letters of Luther, which play such a prominent part in all the books described, are bound up with a very distinctive interest to the people of Saxony, the scene of the early movements in the Reformation. Similarly, the story of Goethe's and Schiller's life is nowhere so happily placed as in reading books for the children in Saxe-Weimar. The importance of such local colouring in heightening the interest of

the material, and the value of drawing the child's attention to the historical associations of his native place can hardly be over-estimated.

The reading books of the younger children, and the remainder of the prose for the elder, can be lightly passed over. The subjects chosen fall into three classes. They are either short stories (chiefly Grimm's Fairy Tales, "Red Riding Hood," "The Bremen Musicians," &c., and in the higher classes the Fables of Lessing and Herder); or they knit themselves closely on to the life of Nature as it appeals to the child, *e.g.*, under the heads in which the pieces for the first school year are grouped appear "Meadows," "Shepherds and Flocks," "Summer Weather," "The Village and Life of the Peasants" (it must be borne in mind that large tracts of Saxony are agricultural), "The Hand Workers," &c., or lastly (a very large class), they are taken from the chief events in the life of the child, "The Child and the School," "House and Family," "Sunday," "Christmas," "The New Year," "Easter," &c. A large proportion of the pieces is religious in tone; 27 are classed together in the Leipzig book under the heading "God and Man." An interesting feature is the inclusion of a number of proverbs, chiefly ethical, inculcating industry, thrift, &c.

Poetry bulks most in the books for the younger children, where it is in the proportion of 1 to 3. The subjects are much the same as in the prose. "The Arrival of Spring," "Summer Song," "The Flowers," "The Christ Child," and—a feature strange to English readers—numerous riddles in verse. The chief source drawn upon is Hey's poems.

In the higher classes the selections are, as a rule, admirable in style and matter, though the German schoolmaster has much reason to consider himself fortunate in his literature; for it would be difficult to find in any other language the same rich store of poems by the greatest writers, which are yet admirably adapted for children of 12 to 14 years. Fine ballads on stirring subjects—the natural delight of boyhood—abound; it is but just to say the opportunity has been abundantly utilised. There may be found, besides, some 20 hymns and poems of Uhland, Chamisso, Goethe, and Schiller. The favourite poems from the works of the two latter authors seem to be Schiller's "Song of the Bell," "Bürgschaft," "Siegesfest," "The Graf von Hapsburg," Goethe's "Erlkönig," "Hufeisen," and "Johanna Seybus." The proportion of poetry to prose is about one-sixth, though, so far as my experience goes, poems are read quite as frequently as prose pieces.

In a higher Bürger-Schule, however, as, for instance, that under Herr Ufer, in Altenburg, a special book is used, containing selections from the chief German poets in chronological order, with a short notice of the poet's life and works prefixed to each. In the one which I examined there, Goethe and Schiller alone occupied 100 pages out of 350. Besides the ordinary ballads there appeared extracts from Lessing's

"Nathan the Wise," Schiller's "William Tell," and from Goethe's "Hermann und Dorothea."

A word may be added on one prominent feature in the poetry. While the prose frequently appeals, as has been pointed out, to local feeling, it is certainly a principal function of the poetical part to stimulate a national spirit. No German school book fails to contain a large proportion of the best patriotic poems. In all I have found (to take only those well known) "Die Wacht am Rhein," "Mein Vaterland," "Der deutsche Rhein," "Wer ist ein Mann," and others of as strongly-marked a character.

We may sum up the points especially noteworthy in the reading-books for the elementary schools as (i.) their great length. The book is a book to read *in* not to read through; in fact, the usual charge against it is that it is too encyclopædic,* a quality which is in the nature of the case inevitable; (ii.) their connexion with the other subjects of instruction and their consequent inclusion of extracts from the best historians, geographers, &c.; (iii.) the local colour; (iv.) the prominence given to the religious and national spirit; (v.) the attention paid to literary beauty in the selection of pieces. It is the two first points which have to be remembered in turning to examine more closely the method of a reading lesson.

A piece to be read can, for convenience, be regarded in two ways; first, as an exercise in correct pronunciation and expression; second, as a means of conveying a story or information. It will be easily understood that the second aspect of it, with which I shall first deal, is a very important one in the eyes of the German teacher. In any lesson, while the details are given by oral instruction, the function of the reading piece, as has been said, is to give the general outline in which they fit. Even with a poem the story is regarded as of prime importance, and it is the object of the teacher in all cases to get the content clear before the child's mind.

The lesson therefore usually begins with a few questions on the subject-matter or on other works by the same author, and is calculated to remind the children of the knowledge already possessed. A short section of the piece, forming, so far as possible, a whole in thought, is then read by one or more scholars. If he makes faults in pronunciation, they may be pointed out by the others at the close. Then the matter of the section is dealt with first by a paraphrase of its content being demanded from a scholar; comments and explanations of difficult words or phrases follow. Finally the blackboard is brought into use; and on it is placed an Überschrift, or short title, usually devised by the children, to indicate the content.

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* *See* Theorie und Praxis, Vol. III., p. 112. A new series has been devised by Professor Rein, chiefly for the younger children, with the view of remedying this defect. These are shorter, and contain a whole story divided into chapters, as well as the poems, &c.—Rein's Lesebuch für das 2 schuljahr.

Each section is then read and commented on in a similar manner till the whole piece has been carefully gone through. This, however, does not end the painstaking exposition; the whole is now considered; the sections, by the help of the titles on the blackboard, are recapitulated, and their relation to one another made clear by the teacher. The character of the persons involved is brought out and frequently summed up on the blackboard. The teacher then reads the piece through; and it is once more repeated by the class, either by individual scholars or, in the case of younger children, by a repetition in concert.

An admirable illustration, from which I may select some salient points, is furnished by a model lesson of Dr. Friedrich Heufsner to a class of boys aged 12. The subject was a short poem by Johann Vogl, "Henry the Birdcatcher," which describes how on a fine spring morning Henry, Duke in Saxony, was called from his sport to be offered the Empire.

The lesson begins by bringing together other poems of the same author to be found in the reading books, and by a short explanation of the previous history of Henry and the name Vogelsteller. The teacher described the nature of a Vogelherd on the Hartz Mountains, and referred to the Saga story that Henry ate in those places.

The first two stanzas are then read. These give a picture of a beautiful spring morning, which is illustrated from the experience of the boys in coming to school that morning. The lines were quite simple and easy of comprehension, and practically no questions were needed. For the next two stanzas I shall quote more directly, with the aim of showing, not the full detail of the actual lesson, but the sort of question and narrative which can be commonly heard in combination.

"What impression does the beautiful spring morning make on Henry?

"Read the words—

'Herr Heinrich schaut so fröhlich dr'ein
Wie schön ist heut' die Welt.'"

"But he hopes to get something out of the fine morning. What?" "A good catch."

"Read—

'Was gilt's? heut giebt's 'nen guten Fang.'

"Suddenly he hears a sound . . . . he raises himself . . . . shakes his long golden locks from his breast; true German hair he has . . . . hair like . . . . 'The princes in the Märchen.'"

"Yes. And what does he hear?" "People coming."

"Is he glad? No; and why not?" "He fears they will spoil his catch."

"Yes—

'Dass Gott—Die Herren verderben mir den ganzen Vogelfang.'"

"What is the meaning of Dass Gott?" The scholars find the ellipse. Then the teacher proceeds to a very favourite question, "What qualities of the Prince do we learn from his coming forward at once and saying:—

'Wen sucht ihr da? Sagt an?'"

"His decision (Entschlossenheit) and his courage (Mut)."

To transcribe the rest of the lesson in the same detail would both be too lengthy and also unprofitable; for it will be readily understood that the vividness of the description and the particular moment for questioning vary greatly with the individual teacher. But the summary finally placed on the blackboard will serve to show the points to which attention was directed. As the content of the poem was given:—

1. Henry at the "Vogelherd":—
   (*a.*) The beautiful morning.
   (*b.*) Henry's cry.
2. The messengers offering him the Empire:—
   (*a.*) Their approach.
   (*b.*) The relation of Henry to them.
   (*c.*) Their offer.
3. Henry as King:—
   (*a.*) His acceptance of the offer.
   (*b.*) His thanks to God.

Side by side with this the various qualities of Henry were collected, in answer to the questions, "What is his outward appearance?" "What his inner qualities?" They, too, were then tabulated on the blackboard:—

Henry was—

(i.) big and strong (ii.) golden-haired	} outward appearance.
(i.) a lover of nature (ii.) brave (iii.) religious	} inward qualities.

The first result of this systematically thorough treatment of the content, which no written description can adequately render, is to greatly abridge the amount read. A short poem of five or six verses, or about 30 lines of prose, will generally occupy a full hour. This fact has a double bearing on any estimate of the method. In the first place, the children (in the upper classes at least) get very little practice in the mere *reading*.

I have heard a reading lesson on "Moss," in which the actual reading took but 10 minutes of the hour, while the rest of the time was devoted to questions on the subject-matter. In the lower classes, where the content is a great deal simpler, the case is somewhat different; though even there not so much ground is covered as in England. What is covered is worked out with the same systematic care as in the higher standards. In any comparison with our own practice, however, one essential fact, already mentioned, must be kept in mind. The ease with which, owing to the phonetic regularity of German, correct pronunciation is acquired naturally allows the German teacher,

particularly with the older children, to devote much of his time to the matter of the piece. In English, where difficult words and anomalies, only to be learnt in many cases by constant practice, are so abundant, the conditions are clearly altered.

In the second place, such analysis, in particular if a poem be its object, may easily be over-elaborated by an unskilful teacher. It wearies the children, while it substitutes a prosaic and inadequate paraphrase for the freshness and beauty of poetic expression.

The now famous instance of the English pupil-teacher who rendered "Canst thou not minister to a mind diseased," by "Will you not wait upon the lunatic?" has its parallel, it is to be feared, among German teachers. One of the gravest faults in much German instruction is the attempt to create an "analytic understanding" in regions where it is inappropriate. The direct appeal to the emotions which a poem or even a fine prose description makes is obscured by a multitude of explanations. A "ground-thought" in many poems hardly admits of being stated in words; nor should a complete understanding of it be looked for from a child. Yet Herr Pickel lays it down as the first rule that "a child should learn nothing by heart which it has not understood."* The different points of view that have been taken as to the value of such "understanding" are brought out into strong contrast if we compare this proposition with the famous saying of Dr. Arnold: "It is a great mistake to think "that young boys should understand all they learn; for God "has ordered that in youth the memory should act vigorously, "independent of the understanding—whereas a man cannot "usually recollect a thing unless he understands it."†

Among German writers on education it is interesting to observe that the dangers of the usual methods are sometimes indicated. No statement is more true than that of the latest writer on "Instruction in German," Dr. Rudolf Lehmann.‡ "In "one word, the poet (and even a great prose writer) asks for an "impression resting on a direct intuition of his work, not on a "conception of his intention by the understanding. It were a "bad poem which should need for the eight verses of which it "is composed a whole commentary of historical or critical "annotations. On the contrary, the more perfect a work of "art, the more self-centred it is, and therefore the presuppo-"sitions and claims which it makes on the previous knowledge "of the reader are proportionately less." No protest, again, could be more needed than his against the teacher who, on a stirring ballad of Uhland, such as Bertran de Born, asks, "Who

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* Theorie und Praxis, Vol. III., p. 131.

† Arnold's Life, Vol. I., p. 123.

‡ Der Deutsche Unterricht, by Rudolf Lehmann, p. 4. In one of the latest pamphlets, "Volksbildung und Volksschule," by "Horst Keferstein" (Leipzig, 1896), I find a protest raised against "the long-winded superfluous *explanations* (?) of the reading pieces—the chief fault of our teachers."

was the King?" "Who was the Duke?" "What were the names of the children?" and so forth. This tendency to the employment of reading pieces, even poems, as pegs on which to hang long historical or grammatical explanations is naturally strengthened by the fact, already mentioned, that the German reading book is in most cases the school text-book (or rather a book of reference) for history, geography, &c. It is not surprising that in the hands of a bad teacher it may very easily be degraded into the state of being *merely* a text-book.

To confine oneself, however, to pointing out the dangers of such a method would be to leave a very false impression. It is true that to bring a reading-piece home to a child is one of the most severe tasks set before a teacher; and it is also true that, as Professor Kern says, it were better to leave the author to speak for himself directly and simply than to explain him by a tedious disquisition. But this is not the only alternative. It does not follow that if the pupil does not receive the right impression he receives none at all. Under the guidance of a good teacher explanations may become of real service in strengthening a faint feeling or preventing a wrong one. Two steps in the German method may, I think, be singled out as especially valuable—the introduction, and the "Gliederung" or arrangement of the parts."

The aim of the former is to create such an atmosphere, so to speak, in the child's mind as will allow the reading to work with full force. The reading of Goethe's well-known poem on Johanna Seybus, for instance, was prefaced by a short but vivid description of the terrible floods on the low-lying districts of the Rhine, and by a few questions recalling to the children other instances of heroic sacrifices of life in the cause of duty. I was especially struck through all the reading lessons I heard with the skill which was displayed in connecting or comparing the piece to be read with those already completed, and the manner in which similarity of idea was used to awaken interest in the children. A simple instance may be given.* Before the reading of Geibel's poem on Frederick Barbarossa (the story of the sleeping Kaiser who wakes to grasp the sceptre and unite his kingdom once more) a scholar was bidden to relate the fairy-tale of the Sleeping Princess.

The analysis of the piece into sections, each with a brief title indicating its subject-matter, and the exposition of their relation to one another, has a distinct purpose and value. From the first reading, the child, however strong the appeal to his feelings, gets but a confused impression. He is not accustomed "to detect the "essential interconnexion of the parts (especially if the work "be at all lengthy) or the gradual progress of the action to a "climax," and the aim must therefore be to enable him to grasp it both vividly and as an *organic whole*. One illustration has already been given; I may add another from a lesson by Herr

* From a lesson given by Dr. Hilgenfeld in Jena to boys about 12 years of age.

Fack (of the Bürger-Schule at Jena) on the familiar story of the "Town Musicians of Bremen." The story describes how an ass, a dog, and a cat by their combined noises routed a gang of robbers from their den. The striking feature of the lesson (which was given to little girls of some seven years of age) was the constant use made of the blackboard. Rough sketches were made representing the house and the three animals; the position assigned to each of these at the different stages of the story was pointed out by a child, and the sketch was altered accordingly. Besides the pictures, an analysis was also written up, of the usual kind: (*a*) The approach of the animals; (*b*) What they saw inside the room; (*c*) What they resolved to do; (*d*) The effect of what they did. They were brought to pick out section (*c*) as the turning point (Haupt-Sache) of the story.

The care displayed in dealing with words or phrases fresh to the children forms a noteworthy point in good German instruction. "It is an error," says Herr Linde in an instructive pamphlet on this subject, "to suppose that with the speaking of a word the "thing becomes living to the hearer without further trouble. To "the child new words are at first often mere empty symbols in "black and white: it is the teacher's part to make them full of "colour, warmth, and life."* I heard many methods employed and mentioned, all having the aim of causing an appropriate association of feelings to cluster round a strange word. In many cases, where the word is partly onomatopœic, *e.g.*, Weinen, the teacher will trust to emphatic repetition of the sound; in others, he reminds the child of some event which actually called up the feelings denoted by the word, a walk through a dark wood, for example, to illustrate "grausam," or he places the word itself in some different connection. It was rarely that I heard a teacher resort to the method, justly condemned by Herr Linde, of explaining a word by another single one probably far weaker in its import.

†Lastly, to one step at variance with the ordinary English custom I found many teachers and writers attach much importance—to the rule that the reading of the complete piece by the teacher should *follow* the first reading by the scholars. It is urged in its defence that it produces increased activity and interest on the part of the pupil, for otherwise his attitude is merely receptive. His interest is gone when he has already heard the whole and knows the story; while the reading by the teacher, in order to make the deepest impression, should come when the child understands the subject-matter, and should form the culminating point of the whole lesson.

On turning to the actual reading by the children, we find, as has been said, that the pieces done are short. It is but fair to add that the work is in certain points exceedingly thorough, especially in two most important requirements—articulate pronunciation of each sound and correct emphasis.

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* Die Muttersprache in Elementar-Unterricht, von Ernst Linde.

† *See* Theorie und Praxis, Vol. III., p. 126.

The great foe in Germany to good reading is not mispronunciation of words through ignorance, as it is in English, but mispronunciation of separate *sounds* through the force of dialect. The school-language, as the German codes prescribe, is to be High German : yet in many districts of the south the lower classes speak a dialect so widely removed from the educated German as to be at times almost unintelligible. In Saxony, to take a few examples, a in Vater is commonly pronounced as ao; aü and ei, p and b, t and d, j and k, are constantly confused, while there is a universal tendency to drop a final g or confuse a final n with an m and vice versâ (meinen and meinem). These aberrations of speech are, it is clear, not picturesque peculiarities well worth preserving, like the intonation and dialect of a Scotchman; they are actual mutilations of the language. Their cure, as the evil in most cases springs from the home, must be effected by the teacher within the school-walls. It is not sufficient, in the opinion of most teachers qualified to judge, to trust to isolated correction, however frequent; a more systematic treatment is needed.

The remedy sought has been found by some of the best teachers in the gradual training of the children in the elementary laws of voice-production; and to the successful result of this experiment as carried out, for example in the Higher Bürger-Schule at Altenburg, I can speak from personal observation. The plan briefly sketched is as follows:—

> In the first two or three school years, when training in enunciation cannot, in view of the age of the children, be very much systematised, the work is conducted by the help of diagrams showing the shape of the lips in the formation of various vowel-sounds, *e.g.*,
>
> O o o
> *a* *o* *u*

In the case of mispronunciation (*e.g.*, Vaoter for Vater) these are put before the child for its imitation. The reading is done by syllables; and each sound is repeated again and again first by the child who has made the mistake, then by the class in concert, till it is thoroughly grasped. In the later years the instruction proceeds to the consonants. The difference in the expulsion of breath between the hard and soft consonants (*e.g.*, p and b) is explained and practised; the position of the tongue in the formation of various sounds is shown, and the method of producing the distinction between the nasals illustrated. Even the simpler laws of sound combination are taught, *e.g.*, that in und die Sonne the first d swallows up the second, and we get the pronunciation "unte" so long as there is no real pause of speech between the words. I had the pleasure of hearing Director Ufer* give a reading lesson on this system to boys of 13 to 14 years of age. These scholars had a very good acquaintance with the elementary phonetic laws. Before the poem was

* *See*, for a detailed account of the sound-laws taught to the German boy, Herr Ufer's pamphlet "Zur Pflege der Muttersprache."

actually read they were called on to apply the general principles they had learnt to the particular case before them. In each line they were asked to point out the most difficult sounds (for example, the sound of f in the line "Du sei redlich, fromm und frei"), and to give the rules for the position of the lips, &c. When this had been carefully done the Betonung (emphasis) and the stops were gone through by question and answer; and the boys, after a correct answer had been obtained, underlined in their books the words on which, through their relation to the verse or the sense, the emphasis would naturally fall. By other marks they indicated the places where a longer or shorter breath was taken. Thus, to take an illustration from Herr Ufer, the line

Es stand in alten Zeiten ein Schloss so hoch und hehr

would be marked

(short pause) (longer pause)

Es stand in alten *Zeiten* | ein SCHLOSS | so hoch und hehr.

The selection of emphatic words, it is almost needless to remark, is rendered a much easier task through the printing of the nouns with capital letters. Even the youngest child can thus be largely prevented from that most common fault in reading, the emphasising of some unimportant conjunction or preposition. Such a training, taken in conjunction with the simultaneous reading frequently employed, is not calculated nor intended to produce "good" reading in one sense of that term. The principle on which it rests is that any individual interpretation, the final fruit of careful study, is not to be looked for from boys. On the contrary, the recitation has a necessarily mechanical and elaborate air. The regular stresses and pauses, the scrupulous attention paid to the enunciation of every syllable, the teacher marking with hand or foot the rhythm, bring about a feeling of musical monotony. What it does produce is the raw material, so to speak, from which good reading may be constructed, distinct articulation, modulation of the voice, and a sense of rhythm. It is only just to add that in the opinion of Herr Ufer the advantage possessed by the German teacher of retaining his scholar till the age of 14 is nowhere more evident than here.* In the lower classes the teaching of phonetics systematically cannot be so perfectly used, for the children are hardly of an age to apply the rules for themselves. All the teachers I questioned were of opinion that the years from 11 to 14 were those in which most progress was made, both towards appreciation of literature and the acquisition of a correct pronunciation.

The subjects of grammar and composition, though closely intertwined, especially in schools under the direct influence of Herbart, demand separate treatment. With grammar we enter upon a province which has been the scene of more dissension and strife among teachers and education reformers than any other,

* It must be remembered that attendance in Germany is compulsory till the age of 14. In England only 197,327 children remain at school beyond 13; so that comparison of results is difficult.

save perhaps the vexed question, on which it will be necessary to touch later, as to the teaching of Middle High German in the Gymnasium. Two generations ago the watchwords of the parties into which the educational world was divided were "Grammar thorough and systematic" and "No teaching of grammar in the schools." On the one side were ranged men like Becker and Wurst, who declared, in Becker's words that "since the instruction in language is in its own nature theoretical, "grammar, especially the grammar of the mother-tongue, "should be the proper gymnastic school, in which the intellectual "powers may be practised and developed." Against them stood the famous philologist Jakob Grimm, who urged that the natural unconscious growth of speech should not be stunted by "the misconceived and misshapen rules of the pedant," and protested that the emphasis laid on grammar tended "to draw "the immature mind of the child to unfruitful abstractions and "dry reflections." His protests, though seconded by men of such influence as Wackernagel and Von Raümer, had little effect for 20 years. Then came the reaction in his favour, and grammar has been deposed from the throne it once occupied.*

From the nature of the case, however, its abolition is an impossibility; in a language complex in structure and inflected like German it is bound to play an important part, if the children of the poorer and uneducated classes are to speak and write correctly. What Grimm's arguments combined with experience have effected is such a restriction of certain parts of the subject in most elementary schools as suffices to meet purely practical requirements.

From this principle flows the consequence that grammar as an *independent* subject is almost unknown. It is to be regarded as a servant either to reading or composition. "We should learn "grammar from speech, *not* speech from grammar." "Any "separate systematic instruction drawn from sentences devoid of "connexion with one another and with the main interest of the "child is to be carefully avoided" is the rule laid down by the Saxon code. A path to a better method lies open only when we have broken once for all with *the dangerous principle that the grammar of one's native language should be learnt like that of a foreign one.*

Much of the grammar teaching, therefore, particularly that dealing with the inflected forms of nouns and verbs hardly admits of description from its variety. The practice of the teacher, especially with the younger children, is largely dictated by the particular class of faults which he finds. In Saxony, for example, mistakes in the case governed by a preposition and the wrong formation of the past tenses of certain verbs are very common blunders. In several lessons that I heard after the piece was ended, a preposition was taken and every noun in the piece combined with it; or the children are called upon to

* *See*, for a full account of the struggle, Theorie und Praxis, Vol. III., p. 115.

transfer all the tenses to the past by some simple questions, such as "If you had been telling the story about the hunter instead " of the hunter relating it himself, what would you have said?" In short, so far as concerns the inflections and irregular forms, the aim of the instruction is not to burden the scholar with systematic rules but by constant practice in isolated cases of error to let him extend gradually the instinctive familiarity which he already possesses with most words to all; to do for him what unaided home-life does for the child of better educated parents.

In syntax and analysis there is both more scope and more necessity for systematic teaching than in the inflexions; the German schemes of grammar also favour the prominence which these occupy. The sentence is regarded as the ultimate unit of speech as of thought; the treatment or classification of words *apart* from a definite relation to a particular sentence is strongly condemned. Before, however, passing to the description of methods, one point, applicable to both, deserves separate mention.

The great advantage of possessing a grammatical terminology at once native and thoroughly expressive is nowhere more clearly seen than in the early stages of the teaching in Germany. The terms Fürwort, Dingwort, Satz-gegenstand, Aussage, Haupt- und Neben-Satz, &c., speak for themselves. Their existence renders unnecessary both long Latin words and elaborate definitions, the bane of childhood, and grammar can be presented in a much more attractive because more simple guise.

In syntax, as in inflection, the practical needs of the child form the criterion of the material. It is, therefore, limited to those usages, particularly in compound sentences, which he could hardly acquire by mere imitation. The position of the verb in subordinate and principal clauses, the use of the subjunctive and punctuation (a very important subject in German), are illustrations of the difficulties encountered. Here, again, the reading-book usually serves as the source from which to draw, while the method employed is inductive. An instance of a construction is found in some piece that the class is learning; the sentence is written on the blackboard, and the boys look for more examples of the same kind. Under the questioning of the teacher, and by comparison of the instances, they gradually elicit the rule, which, after being repeated, is written down in a note book with a model sentence. Their next piece of composition is then so planned as to involve the use of the construction already learnt. Thus the two steps on which emphasis is laid are: (i) that the instance selected should always be one appealing to the children by its content; and (ii) that the rule should never be given but always found, and, when found, embodied in a concrete sentence again. Abstract and universal statements are, as far as possible, kept in the background.

But the most important change in method produced by the intimate dependence of the grammar teaching on the reading

and composition was initiated by Dr. Rudolf Hildebrand.* His great work, "Vom Deutschen Sprachunterricht in der Schule," which has exerted more influence than any other work of its time, is a polemic against teaching the mother-tongue through the eye instead of the ear. His advocacy of the spoken word, far from stopping at the explanation of single phrases by it extends to grammatical instruction. A short paraphrase of some passages from his work will suffice to show the bearing of his arguments.

"All syntactical forms in the construction of a period are ultimately nothing but a certain definite movement of the voice with which we give the thought a determinate application or relation. Let anyone but speak a sentence introduced by 'Though' (obgleich), and let him notice the tone of his voice, and there at once he has the seed out of which the whole has grown. This varied intonation—the greatest miracle in speech—the children bring with them in its full vigour to the school, and here is the field whereon syntax and the more advanced grammar should be built. Let the teacher take a sentence beginning with 'although' from some province of child-life, let him lay the right tone on it, even exaggerating a little at first; let the scholars imitate his voice until they bring it out in the same natural way as in the recreation hours, then they know what a concessive-clause is far better than many another who has this fine name on his lips, but has only the shadowiest conception of the thing itself."

"So, too," (to quote another instance,) "the variety of function exercised by the word der can be most instructively developed out of the speech and thoughts of the scholar himself. Let the teacher take the first sentence spoken by a pupil in which the article der appears, let him repeat it as it was first spoken by the scholar, and the class cannot fail to notice how lightly the voice dwells on the article; and from this the teacher can easily make its dependence on the substantive clear. Now take a sentence with der as the relative; let a scholar repeat it, and let him listen attentively to the absolute difference in the sound of this 'der,' a fuller, longer, sound, because less subordinate, more important in its functions; and last, put a sentence with der as demonstrative, and mark how this rings with a yet richer tone, because it is no longer dependent but (at least if it stands alone) absolutely independent and substantival."

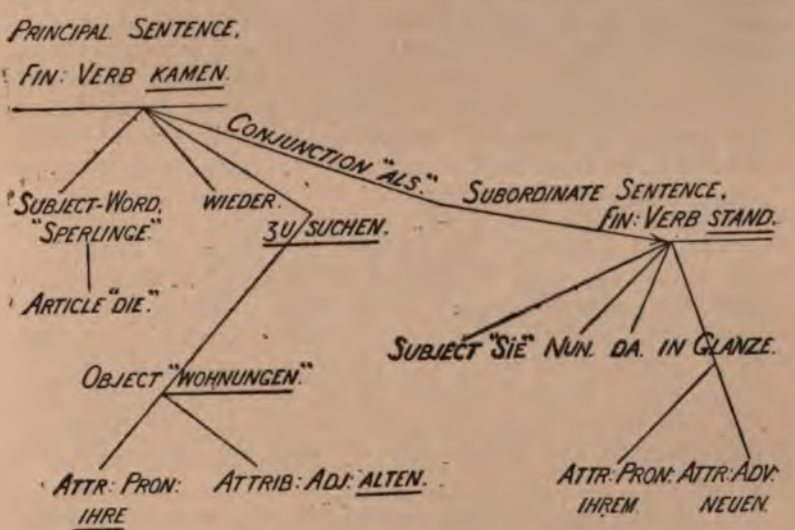
Of the wide application which the principle laid down in these extracts admits there can be no question. To add but one further example, the distinction between the moods of a verb was in my hearing most successfully explained to a class of very young children. It was only necessary for their attention to be drawn to the different tones employed in "Komm" and "du kommst" in order to encourage them to connect this change with the change of form in the word itself. While, too, it is the

* Hildebrand, *op. cit.*, pp. 25 and 82.

most easy method of introducing the rule to the child, it brings home to him from the first the vital connexion of grammar with his own every-day speech, the final fruit of successful grammar teaching.

Based as German teaching is on the sentence, analysis is naturally a favourite exercise. It is begun in an elementary form very early in the third year and continues throughout the school.

In addition to use of the native terminology it presents some differences from ordinary English practice which are well worth recording. First may be mentioned the use made of illustrations on the blackboard. In the second-school year the child is called on to analyse a clause into its component sentences, and these are marked by long or short strokes according to the length of the sentence. At a later stage a more elaborate diagram is drawn both on the blackboard and in the boys' exercise-books. The sentence, for example, "Als sie nun in ihrem neuen Glanze da stand, kamen die Sperlinge wieder ihre alten Wohnungen zu suchen," will appear in the following easily comprehensible form:—



It will be observed that the prominent feature of such a pictorial arrangement is the emphatic position given to the predicate as the centre of unity round which the parts of the sentence group themselves. In German, as in Latin, the finite verb is looked on as playing the chief rôle, and the subject tends to be put on the same level as the object by being considered a "determinative" of the subject already implied in the verb. In defence of such a practice it is argued that grammar ceases to be valuable unless the general principle laid down be strictly applicable to every case, and that on no other system than the

one described can a logical account be given of undoubted sentences composed of a single word, *e.g.*, "Komm."

It is from this point of view—strict logical consistency—that Professor Kern of the Kölnische Gymnasium at Berlin issued a searching criticism of the ordinary grammar teaching, which from its own merit and the reputation its author enjoys deserves some notice.

For his material he too starts from the conception of the finite verb as the all-important part of speech, but he goes far beyond this. He abolishes "be" as the copula and "have," etc. as auxiliary verbs, holding that in a sentence such as: "He is "employed in a workshop," "employed" is but a determinative of the kind of existence, while he casts on one side the ordinary terminology "Extension (Erweiterung) of the predicate" as hopelessly misleading to the children; for any determination is rather a narrowing than a widening of the verbal content, and the children feel it as such. But though these changes, and many like them—dependent often on certain philological views—may appear overstrained, the undoubted sting of his criticism lies in its application to some of the time-hallowed questions in the course of the lesson; and it is here that, so far as a foreigner can judge from the later works on the subject and school practice, his efforts have borne most fruit. The two most important instances deserve quotation: "To ask the question what did he "do, or what did he suffer—according to the traditional usage "handed down from the Latin, is a most illogical, and, from an "educational stand-point, improper way of setting a scholar to "find the predicate. In a quite common type of sentence—such "as 'He did injustice,' 'He endured the pangs of hunger'— "the answer can only be 'An act of injustice' in the one case "and 'the pangs of hunger' in the other. Neither should the "question be put 'Of what does the sentence speak' (von wem "ist in dem Satze die rede), with the hope of getting the subject "mentioned. If the sentence be at all complex,—*e.g.*, The "old man threw his burden on the wet ground —it speaks of "many persons and things—the old man, the burden, the wet "ground."

The effect of such criticism carried out very comprehensively into detail has been to lead to the abandonment of the unnecessary multiplication of vague and pointless questions. "When one "question," says a recent German writer on grammar, "suffices "to resolve the sentence, there is no need to drag a second on "the top of it merely for the sake of keeping up pedantic forms. "The simple sentence, 'The starling was thirsty' is adequately "resolved into its component parts by the question 'Who was "'thirsty'? Why, instead of this, should we put two questions: "'Of what or whom does the sentence speak?'; and, What is pre-"dicated of the starling?'" Certainly few reforms are so important, if grammar is to be a real exercise in inference, as

those securing that the shape of the questions put shall be logically correct and simple, and the ease with which many young children break up a sentence shows the efforts have not been wasted.

Finally, I found in one or two elementary schools, notably Herr Ufer's, the ordinary exercises among the elder scholars largely supplanted by a historical study of words and phrases. An attempt was made to give them some notion of the way in which both form and meaning change from age to age.

In the next lesson to the one which I mentioned above, Herr Ufer called on the boys to pick out from the poem the expressions with an unfamiliar sound or meaning. Among those taken were "*Welchen*" (Lass den Welchen Meuchelei). *Fromm* in the line Du sei redlich fromm und frei, and *Teut* (Sohn von *Teut*). In each of these cases the various meanings the word had once possessed were brought together, its derivations given, and illustrations drawn, where possible, either from the early literature the boys had read (part of a translation of the Nibelungenlied) or (what struck me as very felicitous) from the dialect of Saxony. The word welch, for example, was traced from its original meaning of "barbarous," "foreign," to its determinate application at present. Similarly, the connexion between Deutsch and Teuton was explained, and the variation between t and d illustrated. "Fromm" was taken as a type of a word which has lost much of its meaning and become narrowed to a single aspect of virtue.

The interest of the boys was unmistakeable, particularly when they were shown the development from their own familiar phrases to the High German of the present day. The two propositions of Dr. Hildebrand* have ample support at their back: "The teaching of the High German language should take as its "starting-point, wherever possible, the spoken dialect of the "children"; and "No teacher should, therefore, be entrusted with "the instruction in the mother-tongue, who is not capable of "treating it from a historical point of view." Such a treatment of the subject is eminently successful with boys of 13 to 14. It gives them a glimpse of what is meant by the "development" of a language, and, above all, it helps them to regard the speech of the educated not as a painful school-discipline thrust on them from without—but as a legitimate completion of their every-day dialect.

The teaching of composition is one of the most valuable parts of the work done in the German schools. It is begun at a very early age—the end of the 2nd or at latest the 3rd school year—and practised steadily throughout the course. The number of

* A much more detailed treatment, hardly suitable for quotation, of the connexion between the dialects and High German, with numerous illustrations, will be found in Hildebrand, *op. cit.*, chap. iii., and in Kleine Beiträge zur Deutsche Sprachgeschichte, by Herr Oberlehrer Karl Koch.

pieces completed varies, but never sinks, I think, below two in a week. A short description of a lesson will aid in elucidating the principles on which the method rests.

The theme of the essay is taken generally from the reading book; sometimes from a lesson previously given by the teacher on some subject, such as Natur-kunde, sometimes from some event in the child's life, *e.g.*, a visit to some place of interest. The matter is therefore thoroughly familiar, while the result is to co-ordinate the knowledge won as well as to form an exercise in composition. For example, appropriate themes in the third school year would be "The Coming of Spring," "The Parting of Abraham and Lot" (from the Scripture lesson), "The Sleeping Princess" (a fairy story), "The Waterfall" (from the reading book). Only a few questions are necessary to remind the children of the analysis of the reading piece or lesson which had been put on the blackboard in a previous hour. "What did we "say was the title of the piece? How many parts did we "divide it into? What was the title of the first section? What "was its content?"

Then comes the actual composition, which is conducted by word of mouth. "Who," asks the teacher, "can give me a sentence to begin the first section?" One is suggested and criticised. "Can anyone else give me a better?" The others then suggest, if necessary with a little help, their variants; and finally one version is accepted. In the case of the youngest children this, after questions on the orthography have been put, is written on the blackboard. The same process is pursued with each section till the piece is finished. It is then copied from the blackboard on to slates or into a note book. With the older boys the blackboard is not used, save for the titles indicating the outline of each section. Instead of the copy, two or three boys at the end of the piece (sometimes of each section) are called on to repeat the whole. The class then writes it out from memory. In the case of the top form they may be allowed to vary expressions according to individual taste, though the whole piece is still worked through in class, and its arrangement given them. The next day it is corrected and again written out as a fair copy in a book specially kept for the purpose.

The fundamental presupposition of this method is the inability of young pupils to compose and think out a series of ideas without much assistance, even though the subject be a familiar one. Their thoughts need concentration and guidance, and this help is given them by the working out of the matter in class. Yet individual liberty of expression is by no means sacrificed. The sentences are the children's own, and for the purpose of good composition the oral method is invaluable. It proceeds, like the best German teaching in grammar, on the sound principle that a child should be taught to test style by the ear and not by the eye alone. It makes short work of a lumbering period. On

the other hand, the activity and interest of every scholar are kept up by the desire to improve on his fellows and to have his own version accepted. Constant practice, moreover, is gained in the art of finding synonyms, and it affords an admirable opportunity of instruction in grammar and orthography. Indeed, the practising school at Jena, following a suggestion of Professor Ziller, removes grammatical explanations altogether from the reading piece and transfers them to the child's own composition, an expedient which avoids the fault of defacing the beauty and unity of a poem by picking it to pieces for the sake of an illustration. The orthography is generally combined with word-building, an exercise which in German is exceedingly easy and interesting. The prefixes and suffixes, indeed the formative elements generally, are so plain as to be at once detected. Making compound words is also a favourite exercise, and the effects of the composition on the spelling are traced out. For example, in the word kirchthüre, the children would, of course, at once seize the parts; it is then pointed out that the *e* of kirche is dropped, and they are asked for other similar instances, which are tabulated upon the blackboard.

It remains to speak of what must, from one point of view, be the ultimate criterion of good teaching in the mother tongue, or perhaps of good elementary teaching as a whole. Has its effect lasted beyond the school days into life? Has it given the child an appetite for the acquisition of knowledge? Or, to adopt an imperfect but valuable measure of such a longing, "How much does he read for himself?"

To this question the answer I got from those qualified to judge was singularly unanimous. The working classes read very little or nothing save the newspapers and pamphlets on political subjects. While the conditions of work and their poverty account for much, the system of education cannot be altogether acquitted. The German child leaves school with a small body of knowledge admirably organised and co-ordinated, and with some valuable mental habits cultivated; but the whole of his activity and interest, from his entrance into the school, has been concentrated on the shaping of matter which is given him from without, not on the acquisition of it for himself. He is almost absolutely dependent on the teacher's oral instruction for his material from day to day. He uses no text books. His reading books, as I have had occasion to point out, are for reading *in*, not for reading *through*. There are very few schools with a library, and therefore he never has learnt that most valuable of all lessons—to turn to books for information and to find his way about them. What he is not told he will not look for. Thus the admirable methods and preparation for reading, even the sense of style and form, which I believe to be given, are useless. He has learnt *how* to read a piece; but he has never been taught to read it without an order from his teacher. I am bound, in short, to express my thorough agreement with an

American critic* of the German elementary school methods, when he declares that it has the radical defect of trying to do for the child what he should learn to do for himself. It all works within a closed circle—the school: yet the ultimate criterion of any lessons, particularly the lessons in the mother-tongue, must be found in the world without—in the help and encouragement given towards a completion of the outline, necessarily imperfect, which has been sketched for the scholar, and the *application* of the mental habits won by his reading and composition.

II.—The Higher Schools.

The teaching of the German language and literature has now been firmly established for over 100 years in the higher schools of the country. Its recognition stands in direct connexion with the growth of the German classical literature towards the end of the eighteenth century. Before that time the efforts of educational reformers were chiefly directed towards obtaining the removal from school and university practice of the stern rule laid down for the Strasburg Gymnasium:—"Qui sermone alio ututur quam Latino, ratione bonâ puniantur." But in 1780–1800 two men in very different spheres were working with the same ideal of diffusing a real knowledge of the national literature. In 1788 the great Prussian Minister of Education, Von Zedlitz, built up a systematic course of instruction and gave it a prominent place in the leaving examination, and in a school speech at Weimar, eight years later,† Herder welcomed the new movement. From that time onward the subject kept its place in the gymnasium without dispute. In 1834 the regulations were confirmed, while in 1859 a knowledge of the chief epochs in German literary history was demanded from the pupils of a Real-Schule. The last ordinance in 1891 lays the chief stress on the national and "patriotic feeling bound up with German "speech, German culture, and German classics."

The hours of study given to the subject in a gymnasium are three a week in ‡Sexta, Quinta, and Prima, while the rest of the classes have only two hours; in a Real-Schule three hours all through the school; in a higher girls' school about four. The German school week in the higher classes of the boys' schools is some six or seven hours longer than our own.

Compared with the other subjects of instruction, German in a gymnasium has slightly more time than French, and about a quarter of that devoted to the classics; in a Real-Schule the modern languages and mathematics take about 12 hours, the classics (Latin) having about eight per week.

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* *See* Seeley: "The German Public School System," p. 106.

† Our national vanity may be gratified by one passage from his speech: "Which "of you knows Klopstock, Lessing, and Winckelmann as the English know their "Milton and Shakespeare?"

‡ It may be convenient to state that the order of the forms in a German gymnasium is exactly the reverse of that adopted in an English public school. The sixth is the lowest, the first the highest class.

In treating of the curriculum the natural line of demarcation falls when the systematic study of the classical authors and the literary history begins, usually with Ober-Tertia or Unter-Sekunda (answering roughly to the lower fifth form in an English public school). In Quarta, Quinta, and Sexta, short isolated poems and prose pieces form the staple of the reading.

Such a division is rendered advisable for the purpose at present in view; for the instruction in the lower classes, dealing as it does with boys of the same age and same state of preparation as those in a higher Bürger-Schule presents great similiarity both in methods and (though to a less extent) in matter to that already described. In reading we have, for example, the same thoroughness in impressing the content on the boys' minds, the paraphrase given by one of the class, the same use of the blackboard, and the same emphasis laid on correct stresses and stops.

The reading books also, though bulkier, are of a like character; those most commonly in use are by Hopf and Paulsiek or Hiecke-Berlitz. They include—besides a large body of selections from prose authors on various subjects and poems, chiefly ballads or epic in nature, from Uhland, Schiller, Goethe, &c.—extracts from Latin, Greek, and German Saga and myths, and at the end a short synopsis of the chief grammatical and syntactical rules with a notice of the principal kinds of metre.

In order to avoid repetition I shall note only such points of variation as spring from the different length and adequacy of the education destined for the boys, and above all from the inclusion of Latin and Greek in the curriculum.

The general principles governing the use of the reading book are that it is a means of co-ordination of studies, it forms an introduction to the future study of the national literature—this is especially the work of the poems read—and it paves the way for the classics in Latin and Greek by familiarising the boys with the chief personages, events, and places of ancient myth and story.

As an illustration, I may quote from the syllabus of work for Sexta, Quinta, and Quarta in the Jena Gymnasium :—

SEXTA.

A.—*Pieces and Poems to reinforce the Religious Instruction.*

"Wo wohnt der liebe Gott" (Hey), Sonntagsfrühe (Reinick), and Weihnachten (E. M. Arndt), &c.

B.—*Sagas and Stories.*

The story of the Odyssey and the poems Siegfrieds Schwert (Uhland), Mein Vaterland (Hoffman), Die Wacht am Rhein, &c.

C.—*Various Poems.*

Der Schütz (Schiller), Des Knaben Beylied (Uhland), &c.

QUINTA.

A.—*Religious.*

Biblical scenery: "Bethlehem, Nazareth, Bethany, &c." Poems: "Sternhelle Nacht," "Des fremden Kindes heilger Christ," &c. To this branch belong, in a wider sense, Lessing's Fables.

B.—*Saga, the National History.*

The story of the Iliad, German Saga (Nibelungen-Saga). Poems: Rudolf von Habsburg, Der deutsche Rhein, Mein Vaterland, &c.

C.—*Pictures from Nature.*

The Stag Hunt, the Vulture, &c.

QUARTA.

A.—*Religious and Ethical.*

Das Grab des Vaters, Sonntag und Weihnachten, Das Lied vom braven Mann, &c.

B.—*Saga.*

The Theban Saga. Pictures from Greek history, with Schiller's "Polykrates" and "Die Bürgschaft." Pictures from Roman history: Scenery in Italy (three pieces), Athens.

In reading these pieces more stress than in the elementary schools is laid on a knowlege of the facts connected with the authorship of a piece—both the chief events and dates in the writer's life, especially if it be Schiller or Goethe, and the names of most of his principal works.

In grammar and composition the essential features of German methods are still to be found. Both subjects are intertwined with the reading which furnishes the material for them. While the grammar, however, is confined to "descriptive" as opposed to "comparative," it is not so strictly limited to a sufficiency for practical needs as in the primary schools. The order in which the parts are taken is systematic; the boy proceeds from regular to irregular forms, and from forms to syntax. The syllabus already quoted will serve to show its scope and arrangement.

Sexta.—The chief rules of punctuation, as a conclusion to the analysis of easy sentences; orthography taught by word-building; exercises in writing in both the German and Latin characters.

Quinta.—The more difficult rules of punctuation (*e.g.*, the comma before und); the principles of declension and conjugation; the regular change of vowel in the noun and verb.

Quarta.—Recapitulation and completion of the declensions and conjugations by the consideration of irregularities. *Unter-tertia* passes to word derivation and the difficulties of syntax, particularly the treatment of indirect speech and the conjunctive mood.

This last subject is sometimes reserved for Ober-tertia.

The magnitude of the subjects in such a catalogue as this is only apparent. Out of the three hours a week, only half an hour will often be spent on grammar. The reason for the contrast with the elementary schools lies first in the class of boys filling a gymnasium. Coming, as most of them do, from refined homes, the chief difficulties of the elementary scholar—mistakes in inflection, &c.—are comparatively infrequent. Only the irregular nouns and verbs need care; and, above all, punctuation, which, unlike language, cannot be learnt by unconscious imitation of educated companions.

A still weightier reason lies behind—the skill with which the instruction in Latin begun in Sexta is utilised to smooth the difficulties of German grammar. A knowledge of Latin syntax finds no obstacle for its application to German; and occasionally the contrast between the two languages, *e.g.*, in the use of the subjunctive, is most fruitful in the learning of either. "The "major part of the instruction must concern itself with the "foreign language; and, as the chief difficulty of Latin to "beginners arises from the grammar, the German lesson need "only take grammar within its province so far as it can add "something new to what is already won in other ways." It may be added (to follow out what is implied in some remarks of the Prussian Code) that a foreign language is for this purpose of training in inflections, &c. clearly better than one's own, where the difficulties and problems are obscured by familiarity.

Many years ago the late Mr. Matthew Arnold, in his reports on secondary education in Germany, commented on the value of this study of the mother-tongue as a *sequel* to Latin; and the rule on which he bestows high praise still holds good in the organisation of a gymnasium. The Latin and German instruction are in the lower classes always entrusted to the same hands.

The chief note of the weekly essay still is strict reproduction of proper material under the guidance of the teacher. The themes are drawn mainly from the work read, but also from the life of the boy himself, walks, festivals, school life, &c. The following is a list of some subjects set in Quarta:—

A Spring Morning in the Wood. The Speech of Miltiades at the Bridge over the Ister (following Cornelius Nepos). The Defence of Stesagoras for his brother Miltiades. The historical circumstances of Gustav Schwal's poem. Unius viri prudentia Græcia liberata est Europæque succubuit Asia (Nepos: Themistocles). My Christmas Wish (a letter to the parents). The

Strife of the Fruits (in dramatic form). The Emperor in Leipzig (a letter). Town and Country (a dialogue).

Greater liberty is allowed the pupils than in an elementary school. The arrangement of the material under headings is given them, and the content is narrated in class. It is not, however, committed to memory, so that the language of the composition written at home is generally partly derived and partly original.

A certain hour—one of the most profitable of the week—is set aside for the supervision of these exercises. The master goes through them in class, pointing out individual blunders in grammar, punctuation, &c., and using them as stepping stones to the correct rules. He then constructs a kind of fair copy from the exercises submitted to him, or, in the case of Sexta and Quinta, adds a short dictation to impress more firmly any corrections in orthography.

The work in these lower classes may therefore be summed up as being essentially of the nature of a systematic "preparation." The boy of 15 has learnt how to read with intelligence a single ballad or prose piece, knows a few necessarily elementary facts in literary history, is acquainted with the rules of grammar and syntax, and has made practical application of them in writing. He has also had a model given him for the arrangement of some simple themes in composition. From Tertia he enters on the wider fields from which the child even in the higher elementary school is necessarily debarred—the history of his language and the reading of its classical authors.

To draw a complete picture of the instruction in the higher forms is obviously impossible; the magnitude of the subjects treated, and the inevitable differences in schools owing to the personality and tastes of the teacher, which are bound to make themselves felt in a small class of advanced students, render it necessary to mark out certain limits for comment.

I shall try in the first place, by quotation from various school programmes, to give some idea of the ground actually covered; in the second, to comment on some specially noteworthy points in matter and method; and, finally, to illustrate by one or two summaries of actual lessons.

The programme of the Royal Gymnasium at Leipzig presents the following list of works studied from Easter 1895 to Easter 1896.

Ober-Tertia.—Schiller's Ballads and Songs of the War for Freedom, read and some learnt by heart. The chief kinds of verse and the principal figures of speech were explained and illustrated.

Unter-Sekunda.—Schiller's Wilhelm Tell, Maria Stuart; Goethe's Götz and Egmont; Schiller's poems continued. Suitable places from the first three pieces were learnt by heart. Short biographies of the authors.

Ober-Sekunda.—An introduction to the Middle High German speech and the history of its literature. From the

Nibelungen-lied were read the sections most important for the comprehension of the story and the chief characters. A selection from the songs of Walthes.

The private reading of the scholars was to embrace Schiller's Wallenstein and Kleist's Prinz von Homburg.

Unter-Prima.—The most important events in the German literary history from the end of the Middle Ages till the time of Lessing. The development of the German Drama. Klopstock's life and poems. Lessing's life and works, especially Philotas, Minna von Barnhelm, Emilia Galotti, and portions of the Laokoon. The development of Schiller's plays up to the Wallenstein. Some of the philosophic poems of Schiller were read, while two or three plays of Shakespeare, read privately by the scholars in a translation, were touched on in the lectures.

Ober-Prima.—Recapitulation and enlargement of the knowledge gained of Klopstock, Lessing, and Herder. Goethe's youth. Goethe in Leipzig and Strasburg. "Dichtung und Wahrheit." The Sturm und Drang period. Selected works of Goethe and Schiller, *e.g.*, Iphigeneia, Tasso, Bride of Messina; portions of Goethe's prose works. Recapitulation of the life and works of Schiller up to 1794. The friendship of Goethe and Schiller.

While this quotation is fairly typical of the curriculum in the reading, there is naturally some divergence in the selection of books. The Jungfrau von Orleans is bound to be a favourite work in higher schools for girls. In a Real-Schule, where the Greek authors are unknown in the original, the translation of Homer by Voss and good translations of Sophocles and the great Greek dramatists are read in the hours for German. Schiller's History of the Thirty Years' War is a frequent subject for Ober-Tertia. The precise class at which Middle High German is introduced varies. The general principles, however, on which the arrangement rests are almost universal. Goethe and Schiller in their more difficult works, form the climax in Prima. One of Schiller's dramas, either Wilhelm Tell or the Jungfrau von Orleans, almost always constitute an introduction to the study of the drama, while the reading of Lessing as a critic comes as a natural sequel. The variations occur more in the less important periods; in the amount of time devoted, *e.g.*, to Luther and Hans Sachs on the one side and Klopstock on the other.

The teaching of the Middle High German literature has an eventful history behind it in Prussia. In 1882 it was expelled from the schools on the ground that it was impossible to treat it adequately without harm to the other necessary subjects of instruction. The Nibelungen-lied was to be read only in translations. This edict called forth vigorous protests from many educationalists, notably Dr. Rudolf Hildebrand, and after nine years it is once more partially reinstated, though in somewhat ambiguous language. In Saxony it has held its ground more

consistently; at the present day selections from the original text always form part of the course.

Before proceeding to some detailed explanations, it is worth while to lay emphasis on some general considerations applicable to the curriculum as a whole, and which are of special interest, I venture to think, in view of any comparison between German and English schools.

The German literature is, in certain respects, peculiarly adapted for effective use as a means of education in the school. I may pass over, as having been already noticed, the abundant supply of finely written ballads—patriotic and warlike songs. Being of modern growth, they present none of the difficulties and archaisms of language which are to be found in our own early ballads, or in those of Scotland, while the subject-matter forms the most suitable and most stimulating reading for boyhood. Neither is it necessary to point out at any length that the German classical literature for practical purposes embraces only two periods, the early epoch of the Nibelungen-lied and the age of Goethe and Schiller. It is thus possible for a boy to obtain a knowledge of the best authors which is free from superficiality as well as from too narrow a selection—the two dangers which are ever-present in dealing with the abundant, one might say super-abundant, material for study in our own language.

The two points to which I would draw special attention are, (i.) one already hinted at—the extent to which German literature allows itself to be co-ordinated with the other literatures read, particularly the Latin and Greek authors, and (ii.) the ease with which it may be used as an introduction to reflections upon art and life.

The first consideration, emphasised as it has been by Herbartian theory, influences both the matter which the teacher chooses and the knowledge which he aims at inculcating. Lessing, Winckelmann, Goethe, and Schiller drew their inspiration so largely from the classics, that their value in illustration of these, both by contrast and similarity, can hardly be overestimated. It is the great merit of German higher schools to have seized on this point of vantage and held it fast.

German literature is no isolated study; it is not in the least considered as a possible substitute for the Greek and Latin classics; on the contrary, its value consists largely in ministering to them.

This view is embodied in practice in two ways. Those German works, so far as possible, are selected for a class which fall into natural connexion with the other work it is reading. Lessing, for example, in Unter-Prima accompanies Quintilian, and, in some Prussian schools, Aristotle's Poetics; while in a Real-Schule a play of Racine or Corneille affords a valuable illustration of the worth of Lessing's strictures on the French drama. History and Church History (a special subject in a German school) gain force and life from the union. The History

of the Church at the Reformation, given in the hours for religion, harmonises well with the reading of some pieces from Luther in those from German. The connexion between many of Schiller's ballads and episodes in classical literature (Kassandra, the Siegesfest, &c.), or between the Iphigeneia of Goethe and Euripides hardly needs mention; these pieces are always read side by side. To give a last instance, it is a fine perception which allots to the same class their introduction to the Odyssey and Iliad in the original and the readings of the Nibelungen-lied.

Here, again, is to be found the explanation of what impresses a visitor most strongly—the constant references and allusions to the classics in the German lesson. The reading of the Nibelungen-lied might almost be called a study of Homer. A comparison is constantly instituted with the aim of getting clearly before the boys the character of a national epic. The similes, the repeated epithets (Siegfried der edle, πολυμῆτις Ὀδυσσεὺς), the old German Saal, and the Homeric μέγαρον, the Greek and German feasting, the character of the persons are all utilised.

In an exceedingly interesting article, Dr. Karl Hachez describes the detailed exposition of this comparison which he makes with the view of drawing the attention of his scholars both to the differences in the handling of the same sort of themes by the two authors, and also to the true conception of what a national epic is. I select an episode treated with the former object: the analogy between Kriemhild and Andromache, when each hears that her husband is dead.

The points of similarity:—

(*a.*) Both, from the depths of their love, conjecture by the faces of those around them that their fears are true.

(*b.*) Both fall in a swoon at the sight of the dead.

(*c.*) Both are inconsolable in their grief.

The differences:—

(*a.*) Kriemhild grieves more for the *man*—Andromache for the husband, protector, and father.

(*b.*) Kriemhild in her own pain forgets her child—Andromache specially remembers him.

(*c.*) Kriemhild dreams of revenge—Andromache looks at her loss in her servitude.

The second point is the existence in German of a class of poems which may be called (by the expressive German term) Gedanken-Lyrik. Under this head fall many of the poems of Goethe and Schiller—the Ideal and Life, The Genius, &c., and parts of Faust. Much of their work is almost didactic in its insistence on certain definite metaphysical or ethical principles—on an idea which, though expressed in poetical language, yet admits of being "expounded" and, indeed, often demands an explanation of the system of thought in which it finds its proper place. Literature of this kind, it cannot be doubted, has always been in harmony with the spirit of the nation. It is certainly far more abundant than in English; and though it may not be

the highest species of lyric poetry, it is fitted, which a higher kind is not, for use in education. Only a pedant could propose to "explain" the lyric of feeling—Heine or Shelley; but much of Goethe or Schiller, read without comment or knowledge, would lose its full power. For many years the teaching of the mother-tongue in Prussia was bound up with the elements of logic and psychology, derived chiefly through the medium of grammar, but partly through a study of Lessing and Goethe. This formal conjunction has vanished from the syllabus; but the feeling still remains that, in the words of Herr Windel, "it "is our duty in the German instruction to meet and satisfy the "growing philosophic interest—especially in ethical and religious "questions—among our young men in Ober-Prima; and the best "means of doing this is the exhibition of the philosophic "thought lying at the bottom of many of Schiller's and Goethe's "lyric poems."

I have said above that from one point of view the instruction in the native literature may be regarded as an aid to Latin and Greek. From another it may be regarded as their complement. The principle laid down by the Prussian Code cannot be too often repeated if the aims in the teaching of German literature are to be properly grasped. "The treatment of the "mother-tongue and its literature as though they were in a "foreign speech is to be strictly avoided." The primary purpose in the school reading of the ancient classics must always be the training involved in coming to the exact understanding of their meaning. The difficulties of the language, if its finer shades of expression are ever to be apprehended, necessarily demand detailed grammatical and textual notes. The literary or æsthetic side, so to speak, of these great works can only be treated, if at all, incidentally. The reverse is the case with one's native language. A view of a piece as a whole can there be obtained; the appeal to the emotions is not obscured. The foundation for good literary criticism and correctness of taste may be laid, and while the broader outlook thus gained is valuable in itself, it can, as has been pointed out, reflect a wider interest also on the classics through a true co-ordination.

In the exposition of any book, therefore, save the Nibelungenlied (of which I will speak later) the teacher of German does not concern himself very much with points of grammar, textual annotations, or detailed examination of difficult phrases. This he leaves, as has been said, to the hours in Latin and Greek. His efforts are centred chiefly on the piece considered *as a work of art;* his aim may be said to bring out points of the following kind:—

(i.) Its *history.*

The chief element in this connexion is naturally the personality and life of the author, the works by which his style was influenced, the circle in which he moved, and so forth. In the case of Goethe, for example, such poems as "Ilmenau" or "Epilog zu Schiller's Glocke," afford a

natural opportunity for imparting the chief events of his biography. With Hermann and Dorothea the contrast with Homer is brought out, and a short historical account of the German Epic—including the influences affecting Goethe—is sketched; or as I heard done in the gymnasium at Jena, the connexion of the Nibelungen-lied with the Edda is described; while in the reading of Shakespeare—the favourite plays are "Julius Cæsar" or "Coriolanus"—the relation to Plutarch's story is pointed out, and the importance of the deviations from it dwelt upon. The lessons that I have personally attended were, as a rule, upon Goethe and Schiller, and I can testify to the very accurate knowledge of their lives which was exhibited in several cases. It is especially interesting to notice that these lessons in the Weimar Gymnasium are supplemented by a visit of the class under the guidance of a master to the Goethe Museum. The praise bestowed by Mr. Arnold in the reports already quoted upon the knowledge shown by the boys of the literary history of a period such as the Augustan age applies with even more truth in the present subject.

(ii.) Its nature (the contents) and construction.

Of this I have already made some mention, but a few instances may be added. From the comparison of Hermann and Dorothea with the Nibelungen-lied and Homer the concept of the Epic with its divisions into "Natural" and "Literary" is developed; or as the conclusion of a course on Goethe given by Professor Wychgram to girls of about 18 years of age, the distinction between Epic, Lyric, and Dramatic Poetry was reached and illustrated from the works read. In "Coriolanus," again, the dramatic significance of Shakespeare's practice of interspersing the tragic with the comic is subject for comment.

(iii.) The characterisation.

This aspect is always regarded as of primary importance. The pupils are made to collect carefully the relevant passages as they are encountered in the course of reading; and at the end under the guidance of the teacher an attempt is made to group the diverse qualities together and get a view of the person as a whole. In a series of lessons, for example, by Dr. Rausch* of the Jena Gymnasium, upon Lessing's "Nathan the Wise," each character was taken up in this way and two questions propounded as forming convenient headings for such a grouping of passages.

(*a.*) What was his relation to other religions?

(*b.*) What was his relation to his own religion?

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* *See* "Lehrprobe und Lehrpraxis," Vol. XXXII., p. 56 *et seq.* To any one who may wish to see a single play dealt with very fully, this description may be heartily recommended.

(iv.) The style.

Under this head come first the metres, which in Goethe and Schiller are very various, the figures of speech, poetic artifices, &c.; and second, such explanations of words or phrases as are absolutely necessary. These, as I have said, play a very small part; the rule laid down by Professor Kern is that in no case should grammatical points be touched upon, save where the sense would otherwise be left ambiguous.

To illustrate the previous remarks on the use of the literature as an aid to general reflection, I may describe a few salient points in a lesson which I had the pleasure of hearing Professor Schrader give to Ober-Prima.

The subject was the famous speech of Faust to Wagner, on the return of spring to the earth; it had been on the previous night committed to memory. The question put before them was "What is the view of nature which is taken in this passage?" The lecture pointed out how the spring was conceived as being a time of resurrection to a new life—and a new life not only for the plants but for man—who was, therefore, here regarded as a part of nature. Turning then to the character of Faust and its bearing on this view, Professor Schrader asked "What, in "this connexion, was the climax of the speech?" The answer was given—the line

Hier bin ich Mensch; hier darf ich 's sein.

It was pointed out that this line implied the existence of a double feeling for nature—the sentimental musing over it by the educated man's self-consciousness, and the natural unconscious delight felt by the peasantry. The class was called on to give another example; and Goethe's poem "The Wanderer," which had been previously read, was named. This work was then in part recited; and Professor Schrader by a few questions and some explanations developed the parallelism between "Faust" and "The Wanderer," the woman and the peasantry. I was struck not only with the interest shown by the pupils, but with the way in which they brought their reading into play. To the question, for example, as to how the "sentimental" love for nature might be best contrasted with naïve delight, the suggestion was put forward that the words in "Hamlet" (some of which had been lately read in a translation) "sicklied o'er with the pale cast of thought," made an appropriate description. I had another interesting instance of this love for the inculcation of thought, which in England would usually be considered far too abstract, in a lesson on Minna von Barnhelm given by Professor Wychgram to Class I. It was pointed out that Minna and Franciska represented two opposite views of human nature. Minna says she can see both good and bad sides in a man, while Franciska declares that in a bad man she finds no good, in a good one no evil. The girls were asked which view they preferred, and why? The answer was

quickly put together that to judge a man, we need to form our decision not only from the act immediately before us (here lies the mistake of Francisca's view) but also from his past history, his temptations, &c.; and from this Professor Wychgram drew the distinction almost in the words of Aristotle between character and the acts which imperfectly embody it.*

This statement will, I hope, convey an idea of the chief aspects of a classic deemed worthy of examination: as for the method, it can in advanced classes be hardly separated from the matter. The lesson resembles most nearly a university lecture, save that occasional questions are put to direct the interest to the point in question, and the blackboard is more frequently employed. Success must depend so largely on the personality of the lecturer, and his knowledge of the subject, that a detailed analysis is impossible.

There is, however, one feature of a lesson which cannot be passed over in silence—the Vortrag. This is the practice in oral paraphrase which we saw existing in the elementary schools, and which here reaches its climax. The scholars are bidden to prepare a scene or passage of some author, or to read up some period of literary history at home. The next morning, before the lesson begins, one of them is called upon to give a summary of what he has read—a sort of short essay by word of mouth—lasting three or four minutes, and sometimes even longer. The correctness both of style and matter with which this difficult task is performed, needs to be heard in order to be fully appreciated at its true value. It combines many of the advantages gained from a debating society with those of an essay. It cultivates readiness of speech and thought, while, like an essay, by enabling the teacher to gauge the points on which interest has centred, it lends him a proper starting-place for his lecture.

It remains to treat briefly of the instruction in language and composition. The Historical Grammar is naturally attached to the reading of the Nibelungen-lied in Ober-Sekunda.

As has been mentioned, this part of the syllabus has in times past been the scene of violent conflicts. On the one side stood the professed philologists—who urged that philology deserved to be taken seriously, and that acquaintance with Middle High German based on a study of three hours a week must be superficial and useless; they were seconded by some teachers, who maintained that to give a knowledge of a special science was not the aim of a school. The opinion of the great majority of teachers, however, has set strongly in the opposite direction. It is pointed out that it is by no means impossible to give a boy a grasp of the chief laws of language involved in Middle High German, though the detailed application of them lies beyond

* The familiarity of German pupils with philosophic reflections—especially on ethical subjects—may be judged from two addresses by Hofrath Richter to his leaving-students. *See* "Lehrprobe und Lehrpraxis," Vol. XXXI., p. 12.

the scope of the curriculum. Above all, no one can help feeling the great force of the plea urged by Dr. Lehmann. "Here," he says, "the scholar for the first and, perhaps, the only time "during his course at the gymnasium may gain a vivid idea of "what is known to modern science as evolution. The training "in Greek and Latin can hardly bring this advantage with it: "for though comparative philology finds the same laws of "development working in those languages, the instances on "which its results are based cannot be presented to schoolboys. "To be able to concentrate ourselves on one period, and to take "that as fixed is the great advantage of a dead language over a "living one for purposes of composition: but if we wished to "trace the *development* of the dead languages, we must deal "with archaic Latin or the Greek dialects—both impossible "studies for schoolboys. In Middle High German, as contrasted "with High German, we have an instrument ready to our "hand: the laws of development are plain to see, and the ease "in gaining the meaning of the words allows the student to "concentrate his interest on the form. Above all, it raises his "love for his own living speech, and the picture of its develop-"ment in the past enables him to appreciate the changes it is "undergoing in the present."* The instruction takes the shape, as a rule, of notes given on the forms encountered during the reading. An introductory lecture is given, or, as Dr. Böhme recommends, a short table containing some of the typical verb and noun-endings is handed to each of the boys. The first dozen verses are read: and with the help of this table the strong verbs and the cases are picked out and explained. The scholars then write them out at home and learn them for the next lesson. It is certainly the case that after a very little practice the Nibelungen-lied is read as easily as an educated Englishman can read his Chaucer. There is, as will have been gathered, no detailed discussion of difficult forms or uncertain hypotheses. That would be out of place. The aim is to make the boys comprehend the general principles of philology, *e.g.*, Grimm's Law, the change of vowel—(Ablaut Umlaut)—the partial loss of flexion seen in Modern High German. The attention is specially directed to those parallel forms of which only one has survived; and in this connexion I must once more express admiration at the way in which the scholars are encouraged to take an interest in that most fruitful field, and one always open to their investigation—the dialect of their native place. They are shown how forms have lingered in dialects, which have long since passed away from the literary language, *e.g.*, the use of "bin" as an imperative, and the ending i in adjectives. "Under this guidance," says Dr. Böhme, "it has "been my experience that numbers of my scholars have after "the holidays imparted to me observations of their own, and

* *See* Lehrprobe und Lehrpraxis, Vol. XXXI.

" begged for an explanation of forms which they had learnt to " notice for the first time."

The essays in the upper classes figure as largely as in the lower, though they are less frequent—one every month or six weeks. They are naturally much longer, extending often to 20 foolscap pages. They fulfil two ends: first, they cultivate style and arrangement; second, they render organic the knowledge accumulated on a subject during the past weeks or months. The theme selected is usually, though not invariably, from the German literature: the classics may serve equally well.

The essay has had what to an English observer seems a curious history. One school of teachers has expressly urged—to quote one of them—that its use is to serve not only as a logical training, but as a universal propædeutic to scientific methods. This end is to be attained by the inculcation of a body of precepts drawn from the "rhetorical writers" of antiquity, from the works of Quintilian, Aristotle's Topics and Rhetoric, and Cicero's De Oratore. "The universal schemata of thought, the customary " help to the arrangement of ideas, were to make the ideal " framework into which a theme on any subject could be in- " geniously dovetailed." Such a plan was not so unnatural as it seems, while the teacher of German in Prussia, as we have seen, was charged with the duty of preparing his pupils for a university course in logic and rhetoric.

Times have changed since that day; but traces of the old alliance between composition and the rules of rhetoric have by no means vanished. The effect is seen, first, in the choice of themes, and, second, in the importance attached to style and arrangement rather than to originality of thought.

The themes may be divided into two classes, according as they are of particular or universal import. In the first class fall such as in England would more commonly be considered questions for an examination on the subject, *e.g.*, "The Influence of Lessing's " Nathan on Schiller's Don Carlos. What Differences would " there be in the Treatment of the Episode of Laokoon by a poet, " sculptor, and dramatist respectively? The Political and Com- " mercial Importance of the Sicilian Expedition. Lessing's " Teaching on the Three Unities."

A few subjects strictly concerned with the scholar's own life may be ranked here, *e.g.*, "An interchange of letters on one's last year at a gymnasium," or "Why do we celebrate patriotic Feast days?" These are more frequent in girls' schools.

The other class is known as Allgemeine Themata, the exposition of some epigram or proverbial saying, or the discussion and illustration of some quality. These subjects still hold a prominent place, owing, I think, in great measure to the scope they have afforded in the past for logical arrangement and rhetoric. A glance at any school programme will furnish us with numerous

examples. "Vicina virtutibus vitia. Viel' Feind, viel' Ehr. Aurea mediocritas:—

Von der Gewalt die alle Wesen bindet.
Befreit der Mensch sich, der sich überwindet."

It is not without reason that warning voices have been raised by German writers on education with reference to such subjects. The difficulty of avoiding the commonplace, without falling into windy rhetoric, might tax a very skilful essayist. I am bound to say that certain essays that I read presented a rather ludicrous resemblance to the famous composition of Master George Osborne.

"These themes have produced," says Dr. Lehmann, "that ten-
"dency to bad rhetoric and moralising which is so common a
"fault in the work of our elder scholars," and he proposes that the treatment of these subjects, when they are set, should always be made concrete by reference to some definite historical or literary illustrations, *e.g.*, the difference between Weisheit and Klugheit shown from Lessing's Nathan. The advantage claimed for them is that they form the capacity of judging from many points of view, and of developing a given principle into its logical applications.

It is the style and arrangement that the teacher chiefly regards in an essay—and naturally enough. For the matter has in almost every case been supplied by the lessons already given. What is to be said is known; the question is how to say it best. The consequence is that Dispositionsübung (practice in arrangement) forms a regular part of the German instruction. It still constitutes a sort of school logic, though more applied and less abstract than in former days. The method of definition, genus and species, the importance of oppositions (body and spirit, feeling and understanding), the principium divisionis, the use of illustrations, analogies, and similes, the matter with which the introduction and the end of an essay should concern themselves, all these are pointed out, and examples worked out with them. Often some prose work, *e.g.*, Lessing's Laokoon will be taken; and a chapter of his work analysed to show the construction adopted. Usually the arrangement is roughly settled in class, though sometimes in the upper forms it is left to the boys; but they are generally questioned as to the heads under which the subject would naturally be divided. A formal air therefore clings about a German essay; a scheme of the "disposition" is always prefixed to it. The reproduction of one will show my meaning better than any description. I select a model given by Dr. Lehmann for a short essay on "The Character of Hagen."

Introduction. "The importance of his origin, and correspondence of the chief points of his character with it, dæmonic, *i.e.*, *superhuman terrible strength*—

1. In body:—
   (*a.*) His external appearance.
   (*b.*) His endurance and strength.

2. In spirit:—
   (*a.*) His understanding (experience, cunning, &c.)
   (*b.*) His will—
      (i) in hate and friendship;
      (ii) in his loyalty. This quality too proceeds more from pride and stubbornness than from love.

Conclusion.—It is his faithfulness to death which makes the demon a human being. This characteristic is developed towards the end, and we can see the milder feeling of a more highly civilised age making itself felt.

The note of the essay in the higher classes may be caught by an inference from Dr. Lehmann's words, "Original thoughts, a "point of view properly his own, are not to be looked for from a "young man of the age of our pupils in Prima." In other words, the German essay differs from an English one in its purpose. It is not used to detect traces of thought or reflection, but as an exercise in style and composition. Just as with Latin, so in German, the boys are often set to imitate the style of a particular author; sometimes to do an exercise in verse. I find among the subjects at a Leipzig gymnasium: "A description "in metrical form to be imitated from Goethe's Hermann and "Dorothea," and "A poetical Elegy."

The result is what might have been expected. Through the kindness of Hofrath Richter I was allowed to examine the essays of the students in the Jena Gymnasium who were leaving for the University. A natural parallel may be found in essays done at a scholarship examination in Oxford. The contrast was sufficiently clear. The average was far higher among the German students. There was in no case to be seen that incapacity to express thoughts in a logical order or appropriate language which is so often the result of a scholar being set down to write an essay with hardly any previous training or direction in the art of composition. On the other hand, they lacked the spontaneity and freshness both of thought and style which characterise the best work done in Oxford—the welding together of form and content—which can arise only from thoughts thoroughly made one's own. The German pupil has been accustomed to expression both oral and written, and he is provided with an orderly scheme into which the material before him may generally be thrown. He knows in what form questions on a subject may with advantage be put. But there is always a certain division between the matter and the shape to be imposed on it, which, as I have observed, gives a formal and at times awkward air to an essay.

Finally, it is interesting to notice that some German teachers are conscious of the insufficiency of an instruction which limits itself too strictly to the methods and style of composition, and tends to exact elaboration and fine writing at the expense of thought. "If the teacher," says Dr. Rausch, "deviates from the "usual practice of making the essay merely an exercise in

" reproduction and asks for a composition 'heuristic' in nature
" —an admirable opportunity is given for putting to the test
" the understanding and capacity of the scholar, as well as his
" sense of style and order."*

* Lehrprobe und Lehrpraxis, Vol. xxxii., p. 56, *et seq.*: Article on "Nathan the Wise."

F. H. DALE.

Holiday Courses in France and Germany for Instruction in Modern Languages, &c.

The idea of organising special classes abroad for English teachers during their vacations is due to Mr. J. J. Findlay. The plan was proposed by him in 1892, and the first course was held under his direction at Jena in August 1893. The primary object in Mr. Findlay's scheme was to improve the efficiency of the modern language teachers by increasing and making more real their knowledge of the languages they have to teach. It was also hoped that intercourse, under carefully arranged conditions, between the English teachers and their foreign lecturers and friends might lead to profitable interchange of ideas and to greater sympathy between representative and responsible persons of different nationalities.

The first course in Jena was attended by 27 students, and at the end of it a small committee was formed of persons present and interested in the work for the purpose of extending it in the future. This committee has been gradually enlarged by adding representatives of the subsequent courses held, and, without any definite constitution, has carried on the work until the present time. It is now proposed, as will be explained later on, to put the organisation on a permanent basis.

Only one other course was held at Jena under the direction of the English committee, viz., in 1894. In 1895 the management was taken over by Professors Detmer and Rein, and the classes amalgamated with the other classes in the Jena Summer Courses.*

In April 1894 the English Committee for Modern Languages Holiday Courses commenced operations in Caen. Since then courses have been held at Caen in July and August 1894, in April and August 1895, at Paris in January 1896, and at Caen in August 1896. Altogether considerably over 200 students, almost all of them teachers in English schools, have attended the French courses.

The August course at Caen this year (1896) was attended by 54 students (28 men and 26 women). Although this number is rather less than the number present in August 1895, the effectiveness of the classes was probably greater, owing to the added experience of three years' working, and to the great care and labour devoted to the management by Mr. J. W. Longsdon, who acted on behalf of the committee both at Caen and in the previous arrangements in England.

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* *See* note by Professor Rein on page 583 below.

Four lecturers were engaged, three of them professors at the Lycée of Caen and one at the Lycée of Lisieux. Two of the courses of lectures were historical, dealing with the state of France in the eighteenth century; of the remainder, one was on Breton folk-lore and the other on the plays of Emile Augiers. Besides the daily lecture, the students were divided into 12 groups for conversation. These conversation circles have been a feature in the system for some time. The lecture cannot be made conversational owing to the large number of students, but with the five or six students who form each conversation circle the professor is able to engage in individual conversation, to correct faults and to draw out latent powers. In most cases the conversation turned on the matter of the previous lecture or on current topics.

At each course of lectures hitherto given the representative of the English committee, together with the foreign professors, has given the students much additional help in seeing the country visited and in learning the language by selecting a list of suitable families for boarding in, and by arranging excursions, under native guidance, to local places of interest. In the latter respect Caen is particularly well adapted to the purposes of the committee. It contains in itself many buildings and sites which awaken a common interest in French and English minds, and it is surrounded by other towns, such as Bayeux and Falaise, which present similar features.

The committee propose next year to extend their operations into the heart of France, and to establish a course at Tours which may possibly attract persons who have already made some progress in French literature and history, and would be glad to continue their study in one of the most characteristic parts of France.

The course at Caen this year was largely attended by teachers having exhibitions from the West Riding and Surrey County Councils. About a score out of the fifty-four were in this position, and they were all teachers engaged in teaching elementary French in schools aided by the councils. Their progress during the three weeks was afterwards reported on by the Inspector of the councils and considered satisfactory. The exhibitions of 10*l.* were found sufficient to cover all the necessary expenses of the course, including the fee of 2*l.* 10*s.* for the lectures and conversation classes.

Various scales of remuneration for the professors have been tried at different courses, but it is suggested that in future the simplest plan would be to hand over a fixed proportion, say 60 per cent., of the total receipts to the foreign committee, and allot the remainder in certain proportions to the home expenses of advertisement, correspondence, management, and reserve fund. But this is a matter which will be fully and finally discussed when the permanent constitution of the managing committee is decided. It is now proposed that the Teachers' Guild take over the work of the original committee and appoint a joint

committee of its own officers, with co-opted members, interested and acquainted with the work and representing various educational bodies. This plan will probably be carried out before the end of the present year.*

It will be seen from the preceding account that Mr. Findlay's organisation has been able to achieve a considerable success in a small area, and other similar attempts at Paris (under the Alliance Française), at Geneva, and at St. Malo prove that the idea is a fertile one.

It may be useful, therefore, to indicate what seem the main lines of possible improvement and extension.

In the first place, a higher standard of proficiency is needed in the students generally in order to gain the full advantage of what must necessarily be a short period of special study and practice. It may be possible, and if so, would be highly desirable, to extend the present three weeks' course to a month or five weeks. But even in a month little can be learnt unless there has been a considerable amount of preparation beforehand. Those students who start with a good vocabulary, a competent knowledge of the grammar, and some idea of pronunciation, advance during the course at a far greater speed than those who are struggling with the rudiments. The rudiments can be acquired at home; a foreign course is better adapted to give facility in speaking and in understanding the spoken word and interest in foreign character and institutions. It would also, of course, be greatly to the advantage of the students if they would follow up one course abroad by another very shortly afterwards. Hitherto this has been done by very few students, but a choice of places, such as Caen and Tours, or Rouen and Dijon, might induce them to do so.

Another important factor in a permanent success must be the formation of strong foreign committees in the towns where the courses are held. This seems easier to attain in Germany where the universities are strong local bodies, than in the more highly centralized France. The Alliance Française, a strong association, has been able to found a very successful course for foreigners of all nationalities in Paris. But Paris and the very large towns are not the most suitable or attractive places for summer courses. The English committee must aim at securing the permanent co-operation of leading and sympathetic people in other places.

A third improvement, more difficult perhaps of attainment than the other two, would be to secure greater opportunity for the discussion of professional and general topics with educated French people. Up to the present the task of conversing with the students has fallen too exclusively on the small staff of professors specially engaged. This is largely due to the fact that all schools and colleges are closed in France in August and September, and their teachers scattered about enjoying their

* This has since been done. Information may be obtained from the General Secretary, Teachers' Guild, 74, Gower Street, W.C.

holidays. But if local committees could be formed in France, really interested in the work, both in its educational and its international aspects, there can be no doubt that many persons would be found willing to join in social intercourse or even in more formal discussions with the students.

We may indulge the hope that some day a reciprocal movement will arise in France towards investigating the English language, character, and institutions in typical English towns.

F. S. MARVIN.

9 Nov. 1896.

P.S.—Since the Caen course of last year a step has been taken in the direction of reciprocal visits to England, by the Franco-English Guild* in Paris. Through the efforts and under the personal direction of Miss Williams (the President of the guild) a party of French teachers paid a three weeks' visit to England in September. The party were 17 in number, and included heads of schools and of training colleges, and other members of the profession. A full account of the expedition is given by one of the members in the December number of the *Revue Pédagogique*.† No definitely educational work was undertaken, but visits were paid to the principal centres of educational and social work in London, and also to Oxford and to Cambridge; and the party were well received by various representatives of English education, including the Vice-President of the Committee of Council on Education. Great satisfaction was expressed by all members of the party, and strong hopes are entertained that the effort will be repeated annually, perhaps on a larger scale, and with some practical efforts in the direction indicated in the foregoing memorandum.

F. S. M.

NOTE on the HOLIDAY COURSES in PARIS of the ALLIANCE FRANÇAISE.

These holiday courses may be said to owe their origin to a decision of the Alliance Française‡ to offer a diploma to foreigners testifying to their knowledge of French language and literature. To this end the council of the Alliance decided to establish educational courses in Paris for foreigners, at such times as would be suitable for the attendance of teachers during their holidays.

A strong committee was formed, including such men as Messieurs Gréard, Lavisse, Gaston Paris, Duruy, and others.

At the first course, which lasted from July 9th to August 6th, 1894, there were about 50 students. At the second course, from July 2nd to July 31st, 1895, the number had risen to 117.

In consequence of the success thus attending their efforts, the Alliance decided in the following year to develop their organisation, to relax the conditions of entrance, and to establish two

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* 41, Rue Guy Lussac, Paris.

† Librairie Delagrave, 15, Rue Soufflet, Paris.

‡ A society for the spread of the French language in the colonies and in foreign countries.

courses, one in July and the other in August, so as to make it more easy for teachers of all nationalities to fit into their summer holidays a "voyage d'instruction à Paris."

Amongst the new measures adopted was the system of separate tickets. Students were no longer required to enter their names for a whole course, but could purchase tickets for separate lectures or visits, &c. at the price of one franc each. A ticket for the complete series of both courses is now purchasable for 160 francs;* it gives admission to 168 lessons and 40 conversation conferences.

The programmes were wide, and carefully planned, and included subjects of great educational value. The main divisions of the July and August courses were the same; but the lecturers and the special portions of subjects which they treated were different.

The July course comprised :—

(i.) A superior course, and an elementary course, for French language and literature; each giving ten lessons on language, five on classical French authors, seven on contemporary writers, and six on diction, pronunciation, lecture dramatique, &c.

(ii.) A common course for both classes of students, consisting of 12 lectures on "Les institutions de la France contemporaine" by the well-known M. Chailley-Bert.

(iii.) A common course of 12 visits to museums, works of art, &c. in Paris, and the neighbourhood, and to Rouen, under skilled guidance.

(iv.) Conversation conferences, from 8.30 to 9.30 in the evenings in groups of 12 students.

At the close of the courses diplomas are now granted, after a written and oral examination, to such persons as desire to "emporter un témoinage officiel de leur connaissance de la "langue, de la littérature, et des institutions françaises." The diplomas are in two grades. The superior attests that the holders "connaissent la langue, la litérature et les institutions "françaises et qu'ils sont capables de les enseigner à l'étranger." The *diplome élémentaire* is given to those who show that they "comprennent parlent et écrivent couramment notre langue "française."

In 1896 the superior diploma was obtained by 18 ladies and 13 gentlemen, of whom 7 were English, 7 German, 5 American, 4 Austrian, 4 Russian, 2 Dutch, and 2 Italian. The elementary diploma was granted to 7 ladies and 10 gentlemen, of whom 5 were English, 3 Austrian, 2 American, 2 Dutch, 1 German, 1 Russian, 1 Italian, 1 Danish, and 1 Pole.

The total number of students who attended the two courses was 326, of whom 160 were ladies and 166 gentlemen; 16 of the former and 18 of the latter were English. There were 137 Germans, 52 Americans, 13 Austrians, &c., &c. The great majority of the students were members of the teaching profession in its various grades.

* This fee is reduced, in 1897, to 150 francs.

The session was opened with two inspiriting addresses by M. Gaston Paris of the Collège de France ("maitre incontestable de la philologie Française") and M. Brunot (maitre de conférences at the Sorbonne and the École Normale Supérieure). And a private banquet was held for all the students and professors on August 3rd (so that members of *both* courses might be present) at which M. Lavisse pronounced an eloquent tribute of praise to the successful efforts of the Alliance Française in the matter of these holiday courses for teachers, while emphasising at the same time the opportunities which they gave for increasing international relations and interests, in the teaching profession.

These names will suffice to show that the movement is recognised and supported by men of the highest standing in French education.

For the housing of this large number of strangers, the Alliance arranged a list of suitable lodging and boarding houses.

Great efforts were made in Paris to render the sojourn of the foreign teachers agreeable as well as instructive. Various ladies held receptions for the students. M. le Myre de Vilers interested himself to obtain from the administration of the Theatre Français the reservation of upwards of 500 free places. Similar privileges were accorded by the directors of the Opera and of other theatres; and many Parisians, including the President of the Republic himself, lent their stalls and boxes at the Opera.

In addition to the visits, fixed in the programmes, to the various monuments of art in Paris, Versailles, and Rouen, two excursions were made to St. Germain en Laye and to St. Denys, under the expert guidance of M. Reinach and M. Lefèvre Pontalis respectively.

From the report of the Alliance it would seem that the members of the teaching profession who attended these courses, representing practically every nationality in Europe, derived great benefits and expressed the fullest satisfaction.

No doubt, as Mr. Marvin has said, both Paris and the large towns do not appeal to English teachers as attractive holiday resorts in the *summer* so strongly as places more in the country. But a study of the programmes* of the courses held by the Alliance Française and the names of the lecturers whom they secure will satisfy any intending students that the educational opportunities therein afforded them will be of the highest interest and value, while the optional examination and diploma may perhaps also prove no slight attraction to those who give up four weeks of their summer holidays to serious efforts towards increasing or testing their knowledge of French language and

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* The programmes for 1897 have now been issued. They can be obtained gratis from the Alliance Française, 45, Rue de Grenelle, Paris; and they can be seen at the Education Department Library, 43 Parliament Street, London. They are similar in general plan to those of 1895.

literature, as well as to seeing something of the life and interests and surroundings of the Parisian French.

R. L. MORANT.

Note.—Somewhat similar courses are now held at Geneva, under the auspices of the University there. They were started in 1892 and have had some 200 students annually. They are in two series: July 17th to August 30th, and October 1st to 21st. The syllabus is very similar to that of the Paris courses. Full information can be obtained from Professor Bernand Bouvier at the University of Geneva. The fees are 30 francs for the first course, and 15 for the second.

NOTE on the HOLIDAY COURSES in JENA, by Professor REIN, Director of the Pedagogical Seminar, at the University of Jena.

These holiday courses were started at Jena in 1889, with lectures for teachers on various branches of science. In the following year the scheme was enlarged by the addition of lectures on philosophy, history, literature, &c. Berlin and Göttingen followed the example of Jena and instituted courses on scientific subjects; there were, moreover, archæological courses at Berlin, Bonn, and Munich, a course of French at Greifswald, and in political economy at Berlin and Halle.

This year holiday courses will again be held at Jena during the first three weeks of August. Special opportunities are offered for acquiring proficiency in German. as language and literature courses are instituted for foreigners. For those who are already familiar with German there are lectures on the history of German civilisation, physiological psychology, school hygiene, general and special method, an introductory course on philosophy, and lectures on various branches of natural science, *e.g.*, botany, zoology, astronomy, &c. The official prospectus can be obtained from the Secretary, Herr Hugo Weinmann, Spitzweidenweg 4, Jena.

NOTE on the HOLIDAY COURSES at GREIFSWALD and MARBURG.

The holiday course at the university town of Greifswald in Prussia was attended in 1896 by 73 foreign students from England, America, Norway, Sweden, Finland, Russia, and Austria, as well as by 121 students from different parts of Germany. The holiday course in 1897 was held from July 8—August 3. The programme comprised a great variety of courses of instruction in German, French, and English literature, pedagogy, political economy, mediæval history, and physical geography, as well as in the German, French, and English languages. The latter were specially designed for the use of foreigners. The official programme can be obtained from Professor Dr. Schmitt, Domstrasse 50, Greifswald.

A similar holiday course, arranged at the university town of Marburg in Hesse, was held from July 5th to 30th, 1897. Here the programme is divided into two parts, one of which consists of courses in French designed for teachers who wish to extend their knowledge of the French language and literature. The lectures in the other division of the programme will be given in German, and include courses of instruction in German composition and conversation specially designed for foreign students. Besides the courses in the French and German languages, a variety of others were given on economics, pedagogy, and French and German literature. The official programme can be obtained from Professor Dr. Koschwitz, Untere Rosenstrasse 3, Marburg-a-d-Lahn.

Recent Educational Progress in Denmark.

Summary

Educational progress in Denmark greatest in Folkehöjskoler and Realskoler.
Elementary education mainly a local matter.
The Grundtvigian Friskoler.
Facilities for teachers' further training.
Continuation Schools for boys.
Continuation Schools for adults (Folkehöjskoler).
Their origin and history.
The time-table at one of these schools.
The causes of their success.
Their economic results.
Their influence on religious progress and freedom.
Their social results.
Conditions upon which State help is given to them.
Two leading features in Danish Secondary Schools.
Great development of these schools in the last 15 years.
Organisation of the Latin schools.
Organisation of the Realskoler.
Character of the State leaving examinations.
What constitutes State recognition.
The amount and kind of control not inconsistent with freedom.
State-recognised Secondary Schools in Copenhagen nearly all private.
Miss Zahle's work.
The Brockske Handels-skole.
A case of overlapping.
Conflicting views on this subject stated.
State help (in money) confined to recognised schools outside the capital.
Non-recognised private Secondary Schools in Copenhagen controlled to some extent by municipality.
Latin schools outside the capital.
Striking increase of late in Realskoler outside Copenhagen.
The increase characterised by spontaneity, slight expense to the State, and scrupulous justice.
Co-education of boys and girls.
Abstract of accounts furnished by 29 State-recognised private Realskoler.
Number of free places in Secondary Schools.
In Denmark State and individual go hand in hand.
Instances of this in other spheres of public enterprise.

Recent Educational Progress in Denmark.

Mr. Matthew Arnold, who was never weary of impressing upon his countrymen the necessity of organising their Secondary Education, set before them with much detail the example of France and Germany, but almost every one has taken it for granted that Denmark is quite too small a country to serve either as a guide or incentive in our impending educational development. And yet Denmark has had these last 30 years a system of continuation schools which have rapidly spread over the other Scandinavian countries, have been introduced into the United States, and are the envy of Germany and every other nation at all acquainted with the work they are doing. And more recently, in the region of Secondary Education, there has been an equally striking development. Danish Secondary Schools, both Classical schools and Realskoler, are most indebted to the example of their nearest neighbour, Germany. But the imitation of Germany naturally stopped in 1864; and the development in a freer and non-German direction, which had commenced before (a development amid circumstances curiously like our own), has been going on since at a greater pace. The development is chiefly remarkable in two directions —the continuation schools for adults (Folkehöjskoler) and the Realskoler.

The Folkehöjskoler, or People's High Schools, with their related technical or agricultural schools, have increased since the war in 1864 more than tenfold. And whilst the Latin schools, which prepare for the University, have not increased since 1880 more than 50 per cent., the Realskoler, which prepare for the minor professions, for many branches of the Civil Service, and for the higher departments of business, have in the same period increased over 400 per cent. The means and the method of the increase along these two lines are alike remarkable; and notwithstanding the activity of research into all matters educational which has characterised Englishmen of late years, the details, until two or three years ago, were entirely, and still are almost entirely, unknown in this country.

But in order to set the facts in the proper light it will be necessary very briefly to describe the present condition of elementary education in Denmark, and to give a glance also at the distribution and character of the Classical or Latin schools, as well as to add brief notes with regard to the training of teachers and the condition of technical education. If a Dane who had died 40 years ago were to revisit his native country, he would rub his eyes in astonishment at the development of the Folkehöjskoler and the Realskoler. But though he would

find some considerable change in the elementary schools in towns, he would not find those in the country improved out of all knowledge. Before 1878 the cost of the elementary schools fell entirely upon the local authorities, but since then the State has devoted increasing amounts to the augmentation of the teachers' salaries in poor schools. The State contribution for this purpose, commencing with 200,000 kroner per year, gradually increased to 500,000 kroner in 1896, which is to be further increased in the present year to 700,000 kroner (18 kroner = 1*l.*).

The curious part of the relation of the State to the elementary schools is that it claims in return for its ever increasing grants no general right to inspect the instruction given in the schools. The inspection is for the most part of a local and non-expert character.

In every parish there is a School Commission, consisting of three persons, of whom the clergyman is chairman *ex officio*, the other two being elected by the parish council. It is the duty of this body to act as inspectors of the parish schools, and to advise the parish council as to any deficiencies in the arrangements of the schools; and the council may then, if it think fit, vote a sum sufficient for the necessities of the case.

The State holds that the clergyman with his two assistants may be trusted to exercise proper supervision over all subjects of school instruction except singing and gymnastics; and for those subjects only is a State inspector appointed. The arrangement works both well and ill, according to circumstances. It is not unlikely that whenever a new elementary school law is passed, some change will be made in the School Commission, with the working of which some dissatisfaction is felt, both by teachers and others.

The next superior authority to the School Commission is the School Direction of the County Council with the Amtmand (or sheriff) for chairman, and the Provst (or dean) as its administrative authority within the limits of his Herred. The chief functions of the School Direction seem to be, to appoint the teachers from a list nominated by the Parish Council; to furnish the statistics published by the State; and to administer the Amtskolefond, which is drawn partly from State and partly from local sources, and provides pensions for teachers and their widows as well as additions to teachers' salaries for length of service. Some amount of inspection is also exercised by the School Direction and by the Bishop. The supreme authority is of course the Education Office. The somewhat antiquated character of Danish elementary education in the country districts may be seen from the following statement of the items which made up the salary of a head teacher in a parish school I visited in Jutland. The head master's salary was made up of the following nine distinct items:—160 bushels of barley, or rather the money value of it; 290 kroner from the commune in lieu of the land formerly belonging to the school; 100 kroner from the commune in lieu of school pence (1 krone per year for each child); 20 kroner as precentor; 270

kroner from Christmas, Easter, and Whitsuntide offerings, which the schoolmaster gets at the same time as the clergyman; 50 kroner on account of length of service from the school fund of the Amt or county; 265 kroner from the State, an augmentation given to poor schools only; 6 cords of firewood for his own private use; and a residence assessed at 150 kroner. I found similar items in another school in Zealand, which was so much richer as to need no augmentation from the Government. In these country schools, by the bye, only half the scholars attend at one time, and so the school buildings need not be more than one half the size that would otherwise be necessary. In one such school I found that the lowest class attended school 16 hours a week spread over three days, and the highest 21 hours spread over four.

I could not help comparing the first of these country schools with a school of the same size in a country village in Surrey, and noting in what respects the one was superior or inferior to the other. The English school is by far the most striking object on the village green. It is picturesque in appearance, has a good elevation, its large schoolroom is neat and clean, the walls well supplied with maps and pictures; but the hundred children in their seven standards have but one master, who is aided by two young untrained assistants, one for the infants and one to help in the lower standards. The Danish school is humble in its appearance, its maps sadly wanted renewing, and the untidiness was painful to contemplate. On the other hand, the children had three separate class-rooms, with an adult teacher in each (two from training colleges and one from a Folkehöjskole); and as the teachers sometimes exchanged classes, it was found possible to give each class some instruction in universal history and in elementary science in addition to the ordinary subjects. The Danish buildings, whether for elementary schools, continuation schools, or Real schools, often fall below the English standard. The body is less fair, but is animated by a freer and more active spirit.

The schools in Denmark that most nearly correspond to our voluntary schools are the very interesting Grundtvigian Friskoler, which are free, not in the sense that no fee is charged where parents are able to pay it, but inasmuch as they are free to follow their own methods of instruction. They are due to the influence of Kristen Kold, of whom more will have to be said when we come to the continuation schools.

They are Pestalozzian in their character, though it does not appear that Kold himself was directly influenced by Pestalozzi. Their aim is to form the character and disposition, and to interest the children, rather than to impart a quantum of information or instruction. And so, their early opponents said of them, it was no use sending a child to such a school, for all the time was taken up with singing and hearing stories. But as the years have gone on, the two kinds of schools have greatly influenced one another. The common schools have become less mechanical, and the Friskoler, without losing their attractive

features, have contrived to give the definite knowledge and aptitudes which are requsite for the work of life. They have lately formed themselves into a union, from whose report last year I find that returns had been received from 139 schools, one-fourth of which were in the island of Funen. In these schools were between 5,000 and 6,000 children, of whom 307 paid no fees. There were 118 men teachers and 105 women teachers. About one-half of them receive local grants, and it is expected that whenever the new school law is passed they will receive State grants also. But though few head teachers in these schools get more than 35*l.* a year, the State will offer them grants in vain, on condition of subjecting the children to any set examination. For the last five or six years the younger teachers have met, about 100 strong, for summer courses of instruction at places like Askov or Vallekilde. Next August they will meet at Frederiksborg. The State last year made a contribution of 500 kroner to these courses, and this year the contribution will be 1,000 kroner. But the Folkehöjskoler and the private seminaries are the places where most of the teachers in the Friskoler get their training.

This contribution of 1,000 kroner to the summer school of the young Friskoler teachers is part of a yearly grant of 100,000 kroner for the further training of teachers in elementary schools, Realskoler, Folkehöjskoler, and in the various seminaries, in fact, for teachers of every kind except those in the Latin schools. I am indebted to Mr. H. Hage, of the Cultus-Ministerium, for an account of the way in which the grant is spent; but it will, of course, be understood that the details vary from year to year. Twenty-four thousand kroner is devoted to the twelve-month courses and 57,000 kroner to the shorter courses of one, two, or three months. These courses are held in rooms in the Stormgade, Copenhagen, under the direction of Dr. H. Olrik. Though teachers of all kinds are eligible, the elementary teachers, being so much more numerous, are most largely represented. The members of the courses may obtain bursaries of different amounts, covering a part of the cost of maintenance in Copenhagen; moreover, smaller sums are given for buying books. The long courses embrace pedagogik and all the usual school subjects except religion and the classical languages; the short courses add the special knowledge necessary for teachers in agricultural, horticultural and technical schools, besides singing and music. A voluntary examination is held at the conclusion of the long courses. In the present year 91 teachers out of 112 have obtained admission to the long courses, 20 of them with bursaries. Last year 985 teachers out of 1,029 applicants took part in the shorter courses, the majority of them obtaining, in addition to the free instruction, small grants of money.

Of the remaining 18,000 kroner, 7,000 kroner goes in grants of apparatus to the high schools, technical schools, and private schools; 3,000 kroner is given to the training courses in May,

June, and July, which have lately been instituted at Askov for the younger teachers in the people's high schools; 4,000 kroner for special lecture courses at the university during the month of September, which are attended by many of the elder high school teachers; and 4,000 kroner goes to the cost of administration.

It will be seen that there has been no slight progress in Danish elementary education, but it has not been of a general or striking character; and the forces promoting it have not been relatively so strong as in England and some other countries. It will, therefore, be useless to look for any instances of the overlapping of elementary and secondary education in Denmark, though I shall point out something very like it in treating of the secondary schools in Copenhagen.

Where so much of the work connected with elementary education is thrown upon the local authority, we can hardly expect the Education Office in the capital to be so pressed with work as it is with us. I found that the office in the Cultus-Ministerium, which had charge of elementary education, including the seminaries, the institutes for deaf and dumb and for the blind, the Dansk-Skole-museum, and the Folkehöjskoler, was served by six clerks, who were all Latinjurist-candidater, *i.e.*, had received a barrister's training, and by one copyist with the occasional services of another. The salaries of these seven or eight gentlemen amount to 24,000 kroner per year; if to this be added 6,000 kroner, *i.e.*, half the salary of the Education Minister, the entire office expenses of the State for elementary education amount to 30,000 kroner per year, or less than 1,700*l*. The office for the secondary schools is organised on a similar scale.

To the elementary schools succeed the continuation schools for boys and girls (Fortsættelsesskoler and Aftenskoler) and for adults (Folkehöjskoler). Not much is to be said of the former. They are often of a voluntary tentative character, and have not yet received any large amount of State aid. Boys and girls in Denmark generally leave school at confirmation, *i.e.*, at the age of 14; and the need is beginning to be generally felt for some evening instruction for them during the four or five years when they are still too young to attend the Folkehöjskole. The municipality of Copenhagen is at the present moment considering the establishment of evening schools at six different centres, and in most of the 88 technical schools in the country towns there are evening classes for those whose technical education is hindered because their general education is defective. The continuation schools in the country are of two kinds. Those that have a separate existence from the ordinary schools are relatively few in number, and receive from the State 2,500 kroner a year. But those that are held in the elementary schools and are taught by the school staff (Aftemskoler or evening schools) are of greater importance,

receiving 20,000 kroner a year from the State. This is often supplemented by grants from Amt or Commune. A fee, though a low one, is generally charged.

On the Folkehöjskoler the State has since 1892 expended 300,000 kroner yearly. Scattered over the country parts of Denmark, often at some considerable distance from a railway station, are 65 adult boarding schools or residential colleges attended by students of the peasant or yeoman class for the most part, the greater number between the ages of 18 and 25, though many are still older. The young men attend from the beginning of November until the end of March or April, and the young women during May, June, and July; but at Askov in S. Jutland, the oldest and most advanced of these schools, there is provision for a winter session for young women as well as for young men. There are besides these 65 people's high schools, five agricultural and two horticultural schools on similar lines, as well as seven schools which are partly high schools and partly agricultural schools. At these 79 schools there must be over 6,000 men and women from humble homes receiving instruction every year. The idea of them is entirely due to Bishop Grundtvig (1783–1872), Danish poet, ecclésiastical leader, theologian, and historian. There were many influences that led him to be earnest in the matter. Here is one. He had visited England in 1829, 1830, and 1831 to study Anglo-Saxon manuscripts at the British Museum and elsewhere, and had been much struck by the ferment of public opinion attending the Reform Agitation. In a startling expression used in one of his books, written in 1832, he called England "the Herculaneum of the north." If the Danes wished to form a lively impression of the energy that was found in their northern ancestors, he thought they should go to England, just as they went to Pompeii and Herculaneum to see what was the everyday life of the Romans 1,800 years ago. And if they were to be trained to such energy and activity as he had seen in England, it would require something more than books, he thought, to bring about such a result. "One must *talk* to the people, especially to the grown-up youth." In a letter written some years afterwards to Christian VIII. he still further developed his idea. Among the teachers in the high school there ought to be at least one who was "a master of the "mother tongue, not only as it is found in books, but as it lives "in the nation"; "at least one, who knew and loved our "Fatherland's history, and was able to picture it vividly in "words"; "at least one who knew and loved our national songs "in their old shape, as well as their new, and was able to lead "the choir himself, or have an assistant to do it"; "at least "one who had seen much of our Fatherland, and knew the "nation, its trades and resources"; "and, finally, one learned "in the law was to be desired, one who could give the youth "a true and living apprehension of our Fatherland's constitution "and laws formerly and now." But the King whom he had interested in his plan died in 1848; and the plan has been

realised by private effort, to which in these later years the Government has granted a much larger support. Four years before the King's death Professor C. Flor had started the school in Rödding, North Schleswig, which is now continued at Askov, in South Jutland, just over the border.

Next came Kristen Kold with his school in the centre of Funen; and after him a band of earnest, thoughtful theological students, who were infected by Grundtvig's enthusiasm, and gave their lives to high school work. These latter are at the present moment the leaders of the movement in Denmark. One of them, Mr. Ludvig Schröder, of Askov, well expresses the precise nature of Kristen Kold's contribution to the success of the high school movement. "Kristen Kold," he says, "contributed more than anyone else to prepare the way " for the influences of the high school in the large broad strata " of the population. He also set the example of making the " life at school as home-like as possible for the young people " who were brought together there. Finally, it is he who, " having engaged women teachers in his school, began to collect " young women as pupils in summer, while the winter was " given up to the young men. Grundtvig sketched the plan, " but Kold laid the foundation securely and well by showing " that the schools must try first to enliven the youth and after " that to enlighten them."* The nature of these schools will still further appear if, with the help of a printed time-table, I show what a day in one of them is like, though it should be added that the sample is hardly a fair one, for of all the schools Askov is the most advanced and has the most brilliant staff. But as it is also the only one that prints a full time-table, I have little choice in the matter.

The full course embraces two sessions, and I will describe here a day in the first year of the men students. Breakfast is at 7.30. From 8 to 9 there are conversations in physics two days in the week; historical geometry, two days, *i.e.*, not Euclid, but geometry, taken in the order in which its different portions were discovered. In this way the subject is better approached by beginners, and the number of failures is reduced. Systematic geometry comes later. Statistics, two days. From 9 to 10 Danish, four days; conversation in universal history, two days. At 10 o'clock there is a break of 15 minutes. From 10.15 to 11.15, history of the north, three days; historical physics, three days. From 11.30 to 12.30 daily is given to gymnastics on Ling's system, care being taken in each of the schools to have a good gymnasium, that also serves as the chief assembly room of the school. In this, for instance, the afternoon service on

* I am quoting here from Herr Schröder's brief history of the *Folkehöjskoler*, the greater part of which is to be found translated in the *Journal of Education*, for 1890, p. 245. It is interesting to remember that this was written in answer to the inquiries of an English teacher, Professor D. Morgan Lewis, of Aberystwyth, the more so as the account has been found useful for Danes as well as Englishmen.

Sundays is held; and the Christmas tree upreared. From 12.30 to 1 comes dinner, with an hour and a half of drawing or book-keeping after. To this succeeds half an hour's singing practice and a quarter of an hour for coffee. From 3.15 to 4.15 English, two days; conversations on history of the world, two days; hygiene, one day; Bible lesson, one day. From 4.30 to 5.30 geography, two days; arithmetic, two days; conversations in historical geometry, two days. From 5.45 to 6.45 Mr. Schröder lectures on universal history to all the students, both men and women, three days a week, the other three being taken by Professor la Cour.

It is plain then that these schools are schools of liberal education or of the elements of it. And when it is considered that the students do not give merely the fag end of the day to such work, but are set free for five or six months together to devote their whole time and thoughts to their work and to their intercourse with one another, the schools may in the aggregate be well called the best poor man's university the world has yet seen.

Great as was Grundtvig's penetration in seeing that such schools were both possible and necessary for his country's welfare, and great as was his courage and that of his helpers in establishing them amid so many difficulties, they could not have attained their present success nor reached so widespread a development, had it not been for the simple, inexpensive way in which the schools are carried on, and for the fact that the farm labourers in Denmark own, for the most part, the land which they till.

On emerging from the central railway station at Copenhagen almost the first object one sees is an obelisk in the middle of the street, which commemorates the freeing of the Danish serfs so recently as 1788. A few years after this, whilst Europe was plunged in war, Denmark was busy raising food for the combatants at prices so remunerative that the men who just now had been serfs soon found themselves in possession of the lands they tilled. And now at the present moment there are in Denmark 224,000 farms, ranging from 110 to 7 acres each, of which more than 94 per cent. are farmed by their owners. It is the self-reliant independence of these Danish yeomen rather than any peculiar excellence in their education at the elementary school, or any ease in their worldly lot (for many of them live harder lives than our own labourers), which accounts for the avidity with which they seek knowledge for its own sake.

But, of course, these schools could not have their present wide development unless they were organised in the very simplest way. 12*l.* or 13*l.* will cover the expenses of a student for six months at any of these 79 schools. That sum will pay not only for board, lodging, and instruction, but also for travelling to and fro, and for such additional items as books, tobacco, oil for lamp, laundress, and so forth. But the student has to bring with him all his own bedding, as the school provides nothing but a bedstead.

Even this sum would prove forbidding if the State did not lend a helping hand. The poorer half of the students readily obtain through the county council a bursary that covers one half their expenses;* and the State also makes handsome grants on a definite scale to the principals themselves, spending upon these schools more than twice as much as it does upon the Realskoler. Schools of liberal education for labouring folk! One may well imagine the amused contempt with which many practical Englishmen would receive the idea. But even the practical Englishman may be won over, if it can be shown to him that what he derides has £ *s. d.* in it. And so I should like to quote the words of one whose position will claim respect. Soon after the increased grant to these 79 high schools was given in 1892, they formed themselves into an association for purposes of mutual help. Mr. Alfred Poulsen, the President of this Association, who is also principal of a high school at Ryslinge, in Funen, was present at the Summer Meeting at Oxford in August 1894, and there delivered a remarkable discourse on these Danish schools, which was printed at length in the *Oxford University Extension Gazette* for the following month, and met with pointed comment in the "Times" and the "Daily Chronicle." In this discourse Mr. Poulsen has something to say on the influence which these schools have had on the economical well-being of the country.

"From the year 1870 to 1880," says Mr. Poulsen, "agriculture, "which is the principal industry of our country, underwent a "serious crisis. The old-fashioned modes of culture did not "suffice any longer. The exportation of corn was the main "industry of farmers; but the price of corn fell, and agricul-"ture was on the brink of ruin. Then it was that a perfect "revolution was brought about in a few years. From the "production of corn and meat, the country now turned to "dairy work, especially the manufacturing of butter. This "was the first reform. The second one came in the year "1880.

"It was very soon understood that, if we were to obtain good "prices for our butter here in England, production of a better "and more homogeneous quality and in greater quantities "would be necessary. Then arose, as by magic, the large "co-operative dairies, which get their milk from larger districts, "ordinarily from a whole parish. By this mode of proceeding "it was rendered possible for our butter to gain its good

* In order to obtain a bursary a candidate must fill up a schedule in which he makes a statement as to his means (which he must get his parish council to attest); saying whether he has had a bursary before, and giving particulars of the expenses at the high school he proposes to attend. If he wishes to go to an agricultural school he must give evidence that his general education is sufficient to allow him to follow the instruction. The schedule also contains room for copies of testimonials. If there be more qualified candidates than bursaries, the Amtsraad may often give the preference to the older candidate.

" reputation in the English market. The quickness and pre-
" cision with which this change was carried out is due partly
" to the leading agriculturists of our country and partly to the
" high schools. By their help a set of young energetic men
" were brought up to understand the importance of the new
" ideas; and to secure the success of the new principle of
" co-operative manufacture, some of them, after a very short
" course of instruction, were able to undertake the responsible
" work as managers of the larger and smaller co-operative
" dairies.

" You all know the Danish butter, ladies and gentlemen, and
" have, perhaps, already often partaken of it. Well, if this
" be so, you also have come in a sort of contact with the
" schools I am speaking of, for the greater part of the men and
" women who manufacture this butter are pupils of the high
" schools."

I would add, in confirmation of Mr. Poulsen's statements, that at the agricultural schools the better half of the students, those who seize most completely and apply most readily what they learn there, have first been students of history and literature in the ordinary high school. The Danish butters, like Opie's colours, are good, because " they are mixed with brains, sir!" There is nothing the ordinary Englishman, even the educated Englishman, more needs to learn than that technical training for the poor man, just as much as for the rich, must in order to be fruitful rest upon that humanistic training which most becomes a man.

But the high school work has had important religious and social as well as economic results. One instance of each must suffice. The Valgmenighed movement, which has followed closely in the wake of the high school work, may be compared to the Free Kirk movement in Scotland, though in one important respect it differs. Down to the year 1855 a man was subject to some slight penalty if he sought other ministrations than those provided for him by law in his own parish. But in 1868 a law was passed allowing 20 heads of families, if they saw fit, to erect a church of their own at their own expense, and then choose and support their own minister. The minister once chosen has his appointment ratified in a merely formal manner by the King, so that he and his flock, like the Reformirte Kirche in Germany, are still regarded as part of the National Church. The earnestness and life displayed in these 20 or 25 electoral churches in Denmark affect all the Churches in the land. And certainly I have seen in Denmark more of that earnest thoughtfulness, which characterises the best forms of religion in England, than in any other country I have visited in Europe.

There must be now 120,000 Danish men and women who have passed through these schools for humble folk; and as the spirit of comradeship amongst them is very strong, they have at the larger schools yearly gatherings of old students of a joyous

and inspiriting character. When they travel, too, they like to meet old friends and to be entertained in a simple, homely manner suited to their means. And so there have sprung up in the chief towns of Denmark 26 high school homes* or simple hotels, where they and their friends, or anyone that will, may stay when away from home. I have stayed, from time to time, in six of these, but in none with more pleasure than Mr. Holm's in Copenhagen. And, though none of them rivals his in the extent of its usefulness, they are all readily capable of extension in his direction. A brief sketch of what I saw and learnt in his home, when I stayed there two years ago, will best indicate the social influence of this high school movement.

Mr. Holm is a theological graduate who, instead of proceeding to ordination, has taken to politics. He represents a constituency in Funen, and is a leader of the Moderate Liberals. His wife is a daughter of another member of the Folketing, who is now again Speaker of that House. Mr. Holm, when a young man, spent two or three summers at Kristen Kold's high school, and Mrs. Holm's father was formerly principal of the high school now located at Askov, in which she herself also taught for a while. They are both, therefore, in such sympathy with the high school movement as to be content almost to merge their family life in their high school home. But the home fulfils more functions than one. It is modest hotel and university settlement rolled into one. The reading-room and reference and lending libraries are used not only by the guests, but also by the High School Union, composed of 280 young men and women in the neighbourhood, who pay, most of them, a krone (1*s.* 1½*d.*) and the rest half a krone a month. There are besides two or three lectures on literary and social subjects in the week, and one for workmen on Sunday afternoons in a larger room a few yards away. Though none of these meetings are meetings for worship, they do not on the other hand keep religion quite so much at arm's length as our Sunday Lecture Societies, for they begin and close with bright stirring hymns of a Christian character sung to familiar tunes; and sometimes even on Sunday evenings there is a dance, but with no special dressing for it, and with no provision of intoxicants. And if at the close of the dance a hymn be sung before going home, no one is aware of any incongruity. I found on inspection of the minute book what sort of subject was found most useful at these lectures. On December 1st a friend had taken for his subject, "How to get on." On December 5, 12, 19, lectures on the history of Schleswig had been given. On December 8th Mr. Holm had lectured on the Danish poet Ploug, recently deceased. On December 11, 59 theological students from the University, who were Grundtvigianer, had invited the pastors of the same way of thinking to a supper and a conference. On the 15th

* A full list of these is to be found year by year in *Holiday Resorts*, published by the Teachers' Guild at 74, Gower Street, W.C.

Mr. Holm read Ibsen's new play, "Lille Eyolf." On one Sunday a friend told two long stories, "Holy Well" and "Naughty Boy"; on another a Member of Parliament lectured on the dramatist Holberg, and on a third a pastor conversed on "the labyrinth of life." On Christmas Eve there was, of course, a Christmas tree.

Such a high school home calls for more spacious premises, that the area of its usefulness may be still further extended.

The relation in which the State stands to these 79 schools (which are nearly all private schools in the English sense of that word) is very remarkable. Besides the 180,000 kroner expended yearly in bursaries for the poorer students, 120,000 is paid to the principals and owners of the schools in the following way:—

1. A grant of 300 kroner is given every year to each agricultural school and peasants' high school.
2. Ten kroner is paid to the principal every year for each student in attendance.
3. The State may pay one third of all the expenses of the school as far as salaries, books, and apparatus are concerned, if there be funds enough. (At present the State pays not more than one-fifth of these expenses.) No school can get more than 3,000 kroner a year if a special concession is not given, and the whole amount of the grants must not exceed 120,000 kroner, special grants included, which latter must not exceed 15,000 kroner. To get a grant a school must have worked for one year at least, and have been frequented by at least 10 pupils for the whole year.

When we notice the provisions that are absent from the above regulations, the wonder grows. In the case of the private Realskoler, which will be considered below, the State fixes the curriculum, conducts a leaving examination, keeps a watchful eye on the quality of the staff, and publishes details on every point of school management which the public have any right to know. In the case of these 79 schools it does none of these things. The curriculum was fixed by Grundtvig in his letter to the King; examinations the schools will not endure even if they lose their grant. The competition between school and school would seem to have been found sufficient guarantee for the excellence of the staff,* and if full particulars with regard to school statistics have been published, it is not the State that publishes them, but the schools themselves in such books as

* In "Statistiske Meddelelser om Skolevæsenet i Danmark" (Copenhagen, 1895), which contains much information in little space, I find that in the school year 1892-93 there were in the 77 high schools 385 men teachers, of whom 67 were university graduates, 119 had passed the examination qualifying for work in elementary schools, 41 possessed the diploma for agriculture, 12 that for horticulture, 50 had been trained at the high schools, 11 were veterinary surgeons, and with regard to the remaining 85 no particulars were given. Of the 144 women teachers, 13 had passed the elementary teachers' examination, 42 had been trained in the high schools; no particulars were given with regard to the remaining 89.

Mr. Rosendal's "Folkehöjskoler og Landbrugsskoler" (Odense, 1894, pp. 178), and in Mr. Rasmussen's "Höjskole Haandbogen" (Aarhus, 1896, pp. 85). The only guarantee the State has that it gets value for its money is the report of its inspector. Four or five typical reports full of interesting particulars furnished me by a friend's kindness lie before me as I write. Their sole aim seems to be to keep the Government informed from year to year of the condition and progress of the schools. The inspectors do not dream of exercising any such control as is familiar to us in England. So wide a freedom can be justified only by large and lasting success. It seems incontestable that, given men with their heart in their work, like these Danish high school teachers, the State profits from its grants to them in inverse ratio to the amount of interference in their work.

Secondary schools for boys in Denmark are of two kinds. The first are called Lærde Skoler, or Latin schools, which prepare for the higher professions and the University; the second are modern schools, or Realskoler, which prepare for the higher ranks of business and for the minor professions. These have a course two years shorter than the Latin schools, so as to allow a boy to enter on business life at the age of 16. There are two leading features common to both kinds of school. All their work is arranged for years beforehand with a view to a State leaving examination, the higher of which is called Artium (Afgangsexamen for Studerende) and the lower Präliminär (Almindelig Forberedelses-examen). The whole key to the right understanding of the schools is to be found in these two examinations. A further characteristic is the thoroughgoing way in which the State, instead of superseding or depressing private effort, has enlisted it in its service, taking care that schools should be fostered and helped according as they are good, quite irrespective of their being in public or in private hands. Of the State-recognised Latin schools one-half are in private hands and of the State-recognised Realskoler two-thirds. In some parts, and more especially in the capital, were it not for the private schools, the secondary education of boys, and still more that of girls, would be all but non-existent.

In the year 1880 there were 24 State-recognised Latin schools, of which 14 may be called public schools and 10 private; they have since increased to 34. Two-thirds of the additional schools are private, and about one-third owe their origin to the Commune. In the year 1883 there were 43 State-recognised Realskoler, of which 11 were attached as modern sides to as many Royal Lærde Skoler; 11 were Communal schools and 21 were private. At the end of 1896 these had increased to 134. Of these 91 newly recognised schools, four-fifths are private schools (among them 26 girls' schools), and seven-tenths of the pupils in the 134 schools are in the private schools.

England has a population 14 times as great as that of Denmark. And if we had a corresponding number of State-approved secondary schools, we should have not only 476 classical schools, but 1,876 Realskoler, in which the mother-tongue, two or even three foreign modern languages, mathematics, and science would be adequately taught.

Of the 34 Latin schools all but two are also Real schools. They are organised in the following way:—Up to 12 years of age the boys of both departments are taught together in what are called Fællesklasser. Then begins the special preparation in separate classes for Artium and Präliminär, there being six classes (one for each year) for the Latin pupils and four for the Real pupils. At the end of the fourth year there is a State examination in each department, the fourth class Hovedexamen, in the first case, and the Präliminär, or minor leaving examination, in the second. The fourth class Hovedexamen is an examination in Danish composition, in German, French, Latin (written and oral), history, geography, natural history, arithmetic and algebra, geometry, Greek (only for those who intend to specialise in languages and history), and physiography (for all the rest). This examination once passed, the pupil begins to specialise; those who intend to take their Artium in classics stopping their mathematics, whilst the rest stop their Latin and give more time to mathematics and science. The former have to pass Artium in 12 subjects, *i.e.*, in Danish composition (a double examination), old Scandinavian, French, German, English, history, Latin (written), Latin subjects (oral), Latin unseen (oral), Greek, and physiography. The latter omit the Latin, Greek, and physiography entirely, and substitute for them arithmetic and algebra (written and oral), geometry (written and oral), mechanics, physics and optics, chemical physics with astronomy and meteorology. This bifurcation dates only from 1871, and though it does not work quite so well as was hoped, there are no immediate proposals for change. In the year 1890 the classical candidates at this examination at the Royal Lærde Skoler were more than three times as numerous as the mathematical, but at the private Latin schools, which are newer and less conservative, they were not much more than twice as numerous.

Präliminär is an examination in Danish (written and oral), English (written and oral), German or French, or both, history, geography, natural history, physiography, geometry (written and oral), arithmetic and algebra; and as many marks are given for neatness as for an ordinary subject. Danish and English count double. I have met boys of 14 from Real schools who could readily understand and speak English, whilst boys of 17 at classical schools could do neither. And the time-tables of the two schools readily show the reason of this. Präliminär and Fourth Class Hovedexamen are so similar in many of their subjects that a pupil who wishes his Präliminär to count towards the Fourth Class Examen has to pass an extra examination only

in Latin, or in Latin and Greek, as the case may be. Out of 1,593 pupils who passed Artium in the years 1889–1894, 220 had been pupils in Realskoler and passed Präliminär. After passing the extra examination in Latin they entered the fifth class of the Lærde Skole.

There is no stipulation at any of these examinations that entire failure in any one subject carries with it the total rejection of the candidate, as at the London matriculation. And yet the minus mark for entire failure is so serious as to make the two examinations much alike in this respect. The highest possible mark for a subject is eight, and this decreases by degrees to the mark "pretty good" (= 1), "moderate" (= — 7), and "bad" (= — 23). Only in very rare cases would anyone who received the mark "bad" succeed so well in his other subjects as to obtain the requisite minimum of marks.

The yearly report, which bears the name of Departementschef A. F. Asmussen, contains the name and the date of birth of each successful candidate at the two leaving examinations, with an indication of his father's position, of the number of years he has been in the school, and of the marks he has obtained in each of his subjects. In each examination quite one half of the work is *vivâ voce*, in which it is the teacher only that questions whilst the Government censor sits close at hand taking notes or (occasionally) directing the examination through the teacher. With the exception of composition the entire examination in languages, ancient and modern, is thus conducted, and so one great inconvenience in English schools, that of set books, is avoided. Within certain wide limits a school may read what it will, and is not bound to take up the same subjects as its neighbours. When the examination is concluded, examiner and censor compare notes and determine the mark or "character" of each candidate. In most cases they agree. If the examiner from his fuller knowledge of the boy thinks him worthy of a higher mark than the censor, he is not expected to give way. The two marks are added and the half taken.

An Englishman on hearing that failures at these leaving examinations are very rare (they scarcely reach 2 per cent.) would be apt to infer that they were not sufficiently strict. But this is not the case. The plucking really takes place at an earlier stage. A boy, for instance, could hardly be moved up to the highest or leaving class at the whim of a parent, unless he were really fit for it. Nor would the schoolmaster venture to "dismiss" a boy, *i.e.*, enter his name as a candidate, unless there was a fair prospect of his passing. The State would hold him responsible for the act of entering the boy's name; and if an unusual per-centage of failures took place, the inspector would feel it his duty to keep a more watchful eye on the school and its arrangements. Thus the schoolmaster, when pressed to do what he cannot approve, can shelter himself behind the inspector's authority.

Artium is absolutely necessary before a student can begin his course at the University. Präliminär is also necessary for those who wish to become students at the Veterinary and Agricultural School in Copenhagen with a view to becoming bailiffs, veterinary surgeons, or attaining a diploma in agriculture or in gardening; also for pharmaceutical chemists, dentists, solicitors, and for many civil service candidates. And so there are every year about 400 who pass Artium and 1,200 who pass Präliminär. About one-fifth of all these are Privatister, *i.e.*, those who have been educated at home, or through sickness or other cause have fallen out of the ordinary school course, and have been prepared for the examination at one or other of the various "Anstalter." The proportion of failures among such candidates is much greater, probably quite as great as in England. Such Privatister if they be candidates for Artium are examined on payment of a fee at the nearest school where the examination is held. But in the case of the candidates for Präliminär a special examination is held three times a year at the University; and as the State has to provide at these special examinations not only censor but examiner, and is, therefore, at a double expense, means have lately been taken to prevent the hopelessly unfit from presenting themselves.

It is by means of these two leaving examinations that the State decides whether a school shall be recognised or not. And this recognition is open on precisely the same terms to private schools as to public, and with the recognition comes the material help (if any) to one and the other alike. The help is given in such a form that both kinds of school can equally avail themselves of it. And in this way, more than in any other, has the State at very slight cost made good the deficiencies in secondary education during the last 20 years.

Except in the case of Privatister, these two examinations are held entirely within the walls of the schools which the State has determined to recognise; and the fact that the examination is held there constitutes State recognition. A mark of approval is thereby conferred on the school, and all the usual particulars with regard to its work then appear in Asmussen, side by side with those of the Royal and the Communal Schools. To obtain this approval, therefore, becomes an object of very general, though not universal, desire on the part of teachers. It has often to be sought more than once before success is attained. The inspector must be satisfied as to the number and capacity of the staff, and as to the buildings of the school. Each of the four Real Classes, for instance, must have a master for it; it would not be allowed to put classes of two years, even though they were somewhat small, under one master. If everything is satisfactory the permission to hold Artium may be given for five years, and to hold Präliminär for three years. But if the school is hopeful without being satisfactory in every point, the permission may be given for a shorter term still. Permission once given is rarely recalled, or fails to be renewed; the fear of

its not being renewed keeps the school up to the mark. But it is not every good school that seeks for permission. There are three or four good girls' schools in Copenhagen that could readily get the permission if they desired it. The leaving examination as conducted by the State cannot but be a great interruption to the work of the higher classes in the school during the last part of May and nearly all of June. And as a leaving examination for girls is not so necessary as it is for boys, there are some excellent girls' schools that prefer entire freedom. Nearly every good boys' school seeks State recognition if it has any chance of attaining it.

During the last 15 years, in fact, the private schools, under the fostering care of the State, have been busily engaged in emerging from the non-recognised to the State-recognised condition at the rate of six or seven a year. A school with a vigorous headmaster, and with a sufficient population to draw pupils from, first gets permission to have Præliminær, and then (if there be no Latin school near by) it may add the fourth-class examination, and, lastly, Artium. And the process is still going on.

It will be seen that the investigations preceding the grant of the right to hold the leaving examinations within the walls of a school is one important means by which the State exercises control over the schools it recognises. A further control is, of course, exercised each year through the leaving examinations and the published results of the same, and (in the case of aided schools) by the publication of additional details, which will afterwards be described. Wherever I went (and I am now speaking more particularly of the Realskoler) I could hear no complaint that the control was exercised in a rigorous or burdensome manner. The teacher was not hampered, nor his just freedom curtailed.

Private secondary schools especially abound in Copenhagen, the Metropolitanskole (a classical school of 200 boys, with no modern side to it) being the only State school in the city. Of classical schools preparing for Artium there are, besides the Metropolitanskole, 13 for boys and 1 (Fröken Zahle's) for girls. Fröken Zahle is a very remarkable woman. She may be called the Miss Buss of Denmark. In addition to her school of 400 girls, she has a two years' training course, attended by 100 students, for governesses in families, in which much attention is given to foreign languages; and a three years' course, attended by 50 or 60 students, for teachers in girls' elementary schools, with a normal school of 200 girls attached to it. In this second seminary no foreign language is taught, and more attention is paid to mathematics. Fröken Zahle also makes herself responsible for a women's Folkehöjskole, besides conducting continuation classes and a training school in housekeeping.

All these 14 classical schools are also Realskoler. There are in addition 17 Realskoler pure and simple, 7 for boys and 10 for girls. The Brockske Handels-skole also sends up candidates for Präliminär, and so counts as a Realskole, though with some important differences. Niels Brock was born in 1730, and, having no children, left 10,000 thalers (=30,000 kroner) to found a school. But the society whom he left as trustees could not agree; and so the money, being put out at interest for 90 years, multiplied tenfold. In 1884 Mr. Tietgen, the Danish capitalist, became president of the committee, and the school was opened with two classes in 1888. There are now 107 pupils in nine classes, 92 in six Real classes and 15 in the three classes of the higher school or business college. The school differs from an ordinary Realskole in giving more time to writing and mercantile arithmetic, and in having a higher standard at the leaving examination for translation into German and English, composition in these languages being taught from the very beginning. The school is conducted with spirit and ability, in good premises specially erected for it, and yet wins its way to favour only by degrees.

I heard of only one distinct case of overlapping in Denmark. Some 30 or 40 years ago three or four of the wealthier congregations in Copenhagen made themselves responsible for certain elementary schools which they conducted; but, when these were superseded by the schools of the commune, the funds which had accumulated were used to found the United Church Schools (Forenede Kirkeskoler), which serve, under the able guidance of Dr. Rasmussen, as a higher school for the brighter boys from the elementary schools. This school is used exclusively for such boys; but, 90,000 kroner having accumulated for which there was no use, a new school has been opened by the trustees, which is open to all comers at a fee of 3 to 6 kroner a month, about half the charge in the neighbouring Realskoler, although the teaching, so far as it goes, is of the same character.

The school is, in fact, an ordinary Realskole, minus one or two of the highest classes. It cannot, therefore, send in candidates for Präliminär, nor does it at present desire or intend to do so. So far no one has any right to complain, although the school has caused some disturbance of prevailing conditions by attracting through its reduced fees about 150 boys from neighbouring Realskoler, in addition to about 200 others, most of whom might not have gone to a more expensive school. But when the commune of Copenhagen, finding that the accumulated funds are not sufficient for the new schools, steps in and makes a contribution to it of 8,000 kroner a year for 10 years, that is by no means the simple matter that it seems to be.

Secondary education in Denmark is organised in two somewhat different ways—with money help and without. Schools in Copenhagen, it is held, are able to hold their own; and with but few exceptions, *e.g.*, 1,000 kroner to Fröken Zahle for her Artiums-Kursus (the only one for girls in Denmark) and

smaller amounts to other schools occasionally for apparatus, the schools receive no help from the State. It is different in every part of the country outside the capital, except in one or two of the larger towns. The population, amidst which nearly all the country schools are placed, is often so sparse that unless the State gave assistance in deserving cases many of these schools could not continue to exist. The two-fold arrangement seems to work well for the freedom of action, which every teacher must have if he is to do his best. It works well in the capital (although here and there a school that did good work has ceased to exist); for the State cannot exercise a too rigid control over schools that are not dependent upon its bounty. As it does not pay the piper, it cannot always be calling for the tune. And since a State department can hardly deal out two different kinds of treatment to schools doing the same work in town and in country, a large measure of the consideration extended to the town schools can hardly fail to reach the country schools also. This seems to account in some measure for the unusual freedom which the schoolmaster enjoys in the Danish organisation of secondary education. But if public revenues once begin to be given to any one school in Copenhagen, so as to reduce the fees by one-half, it will only require time for such a distribution of help to become general. Those schools in Copenhagen that have been calling for help for some time will have an additional argument put in their mouths; and even those who heretofore did not agree with them will, as a matter of self-defence, be obliged to cross over to their side, possibly to their own ultimate loss and that of all their brethren in the land. It seems difficult to resist the conclusion that the 200 pupils might have been helped in some safer way to the privileges of a better education.

It is but right to add that my statement of this somewhat contentious matter has been submitted in draft to two eminent Danish authorities, and that they take a less serious view of the dangers ahead. As it is well to have two sides of a question clearly stated, I will quote a passage from a letter which one of these gentlemen has addressed to me. He says:—

"I use the freedom which you have given me to mention that I do "not approve the conclusions drawn by you on occasion of the communal "grant to the Kirkeskoler. I have spoken to-day with my colleague on "this point, and he, who is especially well informed in these matters, "cannot admit that this grant can have any importance as a precedent "of consequence. The Communal Administration of Copenhagen has "lately refused a petition of the Realskoler (with right of examination) "for annual grants; and even if such be voted, as the Commune of "Aarhus has voted to a Realskole, the State would not feel itself obliged "to support the Realskoler situated in Copenhagen and the other populous "towns. The question is actually before us concerning State grants to "*all* Realskoler that have examination; but the prospects for its solution "seem to be distant.

"You have set forth the opinion that the courteous dealing of the State "with schools is connected with the circumstance that several schools do "not receive grants from it. My colleague does not think so; the pro-"ceedings of the Department and the inspection would not at all change

" if grants became universal. As you have explained it so very distinctly, " the State control is exercised as a condition for the right of holding " examination; but it has nothing to do with the pecuniary relations of " the schools. Administration in Denmark has never been tempted to " mingle with the inner affairs of the schools, probably for this reason, " that it does not dispose of a *personnel* sufficient for a sharper control. " It is my duty to add that the thought of regulating a lecture-plan " (equal progress in the different subjects for the corresponding " classes of the schools) is not unknown to the inspection of the Real- " schools. But this has not been the aim of the proposal I mentioned to " you of appointing an additional inspector. It was only desired to " extend the control, which now is confined to the examinations and the " researches connected with permission for examination, to the daily work " by more frequent visits. In any case, augmentation of the grants will " be a purely financial matter" (*i.e.*, settled by a yearly Parliamentary vote, not by a Government department).

Before leaving the schools at Copenhagen it would be interesting to cast a glance at the secondary schools not recognised by the State. It is easy to do so, because since 1844 they have been controlled by the municipality; and so statistics with regard to them are ready to hand. In Copenhagen a private school may not be opened unless permission has first been obtained from the authorities. The chief conditions that must be complied with, before permission can be obtained, are the following:—(1.) The principal must be a graduate or must have passed through the highest class in a school for officers in the army, or must have passed the examination for elementary teachers. In addition to the last-named qualification it is necessary to pass a special examination in English, French, or German if the intention be to open a higher school for boys or girls. (2.) He (or she) must have been teaching successfully for three years; and (3) must be at least 25 years of age, and present evidence of honourable character. (4.) Particulars must be given with regard to the aim of the school, number of classes, subjects of instruction, and their distribution. (5.) The applicant must satisfy the School Commission of his parish that the class-rooms are suitable and properly equipped. (6.) Occasionally permission to open a school for young children may be given to suitable persons who may not have passed the required examinations, but they must engage not to keep the children beyond the age of eight years. The municipality appoints two directors, one for the elementary schools, and another for these private schools. This latter gentleman has under his oversight five schools for young children, with an aggregate of 101 pupils; three preparatory schools for boys, with 377 pupils; six Borger- and Real-skoler for boys, with 414 pupils; 20 Borger-skoler for girls, with 2,300 pupils; and 15 higher girls' schools, with 750 pupils. Such supervision of non-recognised private schools is not found outside Copenhagen, and would not therefore be endured unless it were lightly exercised. A school once established, the director has little to do with it beyond being present as visitor at examinations and public ceremonials. The supervision, so long as it does not exceed its present limits, seems to

work well both for the schools and for the public, inasmuch as it diminishes excessive, unworthy competition and gives a considerable guarantee to parents.

I have now accounted for every secondary school, whether recognised or non-recognised, in Copenhagen, including those of a preparatory character. And it is to be noted that nowhere are secondary schools more efficient than in the capital, nowhere do they cost the State so little. And this is due to the State organisation being of such a kind that the private schools have been glad to avail themselves of it, and have eagerly fallen into line.

If I am asked about religious difficulties in Danish schools, I can at once answer they do not exist. There can, indeed, be no room for them, where dissenters are not more numerous than nine in a thousand. Religious instruction is given in all secondary schools. But Jew or agnostic may withdraw his child from it if he wish. The headmaster of one of the private recognised Latin schools in the capital is a Jew, but, of course, provides Christian instruction for the bulk of his pupils.

Outside the capital the chief burden of classical instruction falls upon the 12 Royal Lærde Skoler, of which three (Sorö, Roskilde, and Frederiksborg) are in Zealand; Odense is in Funen; Nykjöbing in Falster; Aalborg, Viborg, Aarhus, Ribe, Horsens, Randers in Jutland; Rönne in Bornholm. Of these Sorö is quite a gold-mine. Some large part of its property was the bequest of the dramatist Holberg in the last century. And its revenues, which are managed by the State, are so ample as not only to supply its own needs, but also to make a handsome contribution to those of the Realskoler and to the promotion of science and art. In the five years ending 1891 the yearly income of Sorö was slightly over 500,000 kroner, one-half of which is applied to educational purposes outside its own borders. The yearly income of the 13 Royal Lærde Skoler (1 in the capital and 12 in the country) for the same five years was 524,000 kroner. This was augmented for the first time in 1892–93 by a State grant of 120,000 kroner, which in 1897–98 has grown to 226,000 kroner. The property of these 13 schools is also managed by the State, which receives the entire income and makes good the yearly deficiency. To these schools must be added Herlufsholm,* which according to the will of its founders, Herluf and Birgitte Trolle, is managed by a single trustee appointed by the king. All these schools with the exception of the

* Herlufsholm and Sorö, by their ample resources, beautiful situation, old associations, and completeness of equipment stand out from all other Danish schools and are worthy to rank with English public schools. If they may be called the Eton and Harrow of Denmark, an exception must be made in the matter of fees, which at Herlufsholm are 600 kroner and at Sorö 400 kronet a year (for board and instruction). The real cost is about three times as much as this, the difference being defrayed from the revenues of the school.

Metropolitan-Skole and of Herlufsholm (which are classical schools only) have Realskoler attached to them. There are in addition four communal Latin- and Real-skoler (one in Zealand and three in Jutland), besides two private Latin- and Real-skoler situated not far from the capital, which are in the main boarding schools. Of the 34 classical schools recognised by the State (15 in the capital and 19 in the country—18 of them public, 16 private) 32 are also Realskoler. But the number of Realskoler needed is much in excess of this. It is interesting to see by what simple, inexpensive, matter-of-fact means Denmark has in the last few years supplied the want. The State has established not a single new school of its own. It has simply fixed a standard and offered to every school that reaches it, whether founded by Commune, by private individuals or by shareholders, equal privileges and rights. Not a penny has been drawn from the taxes of the country, if we may except 15,000 kroner (less than 1,000*l.*) for the expense of inspection. Whatever other expenditure of money has been necessary (126,550 kroner a year) is borne by the Sorö Academy fund. There has been no investigation of the supposed needs of any one neighbourhood; no artificial fixing of the number of schools a neighbourhood ought to have; no calling into existence of elaborate machinery. The growth has been entirely spontaneous and natural, with the result that there is scarcely a town of three or four thousand inhabitants in Jutland or the islands without a Realskole that comes up to the State standard.* From the estimates for 1897–98, it appears that outside the capital there are 20 Communal Realskoler drawing grants to the amount of 34,700 kroner, 45 private Realskoler for boys drawing 66,300 kroner, and 10 private Realskoler for girls drawing 6,800 kroner, besides grants of apparatus to all these schools amounting to 18,750 kroner. More girls' schools are not needed because 17 out of the 20 Communal schools, and 43 out of the 46 private schools teach boys and girls in the same classes, there being an average of 39 girls at the 17 schools, and of 24 at the 43 schools. Co-education is not found in the secondary schools of the capital, nor (save by special permission) in any of the Royal Lærdeskoler. A few of these aided schools have not yet acquired the right of holding the leaving examination. The aid seems to be given them partly to help them to reach the requisite standard, and partly from the fear that if the aid were withdrawn, secondary education in that neighbourhood might cease to exist. But the tendency more and more is to confine the aid to those schools that have the right of examination. Eight years ago there were 19 schools without this right

* The accompanying maps will show how evenly both Folkehöjskoler and Realskoler are spread over the land; and what a contrast there is in this respect, as compared with the state of things 30 years ago. In constructing the second map, I have received much help from Mr. L. F. La Cour and Mr. Alfred Poulsen. I cannot pretend, at this distance from Denmark, to have escaped some errors of detail; but the maps are sufficiently accurate to show the distribution of the schools and the contrast between 1864 and 1896. They do not aim at more than this.

which, nevertheless, drew grants; but 12 months ago there were only 13 drawing 689*l.*, against 9 such schools in January 1897 drawing 383*l.*

Two years ago I examined the published accounts of 29 of these State-recognised private Realskoler,* and found that the gross fees on an average amounted to 286*l.* per school, and that the State grant amounted to 112*l.*, a grant which was generally given on condition that the Amt and the Commune made a grant also. (In this way the State ensures that its grants are given only to those neighbourhoods which are ready to make fruitful use of them.) In the case of these particular schools the State contributed four-sevenths of the amount of public money that the school received, the Commune† two-sevenths, and the Amt† one-seventh. These three sums in the aggregate increased the gross income of the school 50 per cent. The gross income even with the addition of the three-fold grant, seems all too small to provide for the necessities of a good school, even when the simpler kind of living in Denmark is taken into account. But it should be remembered that nearly all these schools have provision for 10 or 12 boarders, and that in this way the headmaster may double his income. As a result of State requirements, many of these schools have increased and improved their buildings and are paying on an average 58*l.* per year for interest and part repayment of borrowed capital. The fees for day-boys at these schools run from 4*s.* to 12*s.* a month according to age. If it be asked what is the justification of the State in bestowing grants of money on private schools, the answer must be that thereby the continued existence of good secondary schools is assured in the poorer districts, and that in return for the grant, a certain number of free places for poor children is secured. It is often stipulated that one-half and sometimes two-thirds of the grant shall be spent in providing free places. Moreover, a grant that goes hand-in-hand with a steady insistence on completer buildings and a more efficient staff than the financial circumstances of the school would warrant, confers even greater benefits on the public than on the schoolmaster, who becomes more the channel than the recipient of the help rendered.

It should be added in further elucidation of the nature of these grants that they do not in any way depend upon the result of examinations; nor, with the exception that one half or more

* These 29 schools were chosen, because their accounts were presented on a uniform plan, so that it has been easy to get out the averages. There were practical difficulties in including the rest. But I have no reason to think that the inclusion of the rest would have materially altered the result.

† If it be asked whether the local authority in return for its grants seeks to interfere in the management of the school, the answer in the case of the private schools is in the negative. The whole necessity for anything of the kind is obviated by the very full particulars published of each aided school. The public have already in their hands all that any representative need ascertain. But the school is amenable in a general way to public opinion. In the case of any general dissatisfaction, the local grant could be withdrawn at the end of a year, with the possible result of getting the State grant withdrawn also.

of the amounts must be applied to the provision of free places, are they ear-marked at all. They may be applied to any purpose whatever. Two of the 29 schools are in the main expensive boarding schools where the fees charged are about double those at Herlufsholm or Sorö; but so long as the schools are willing to have free places State help is not withheld. The grants, then, are a free unfettered gift, bestowed in neighbourhoods where assistance to secondary schools is found necessary upon schools that have established their right to State recognition.

There are, on an average, 81 pupils at each of these 29 schools; and 10 free places, 9 half-free places, and 4 places at a reduced fee in each school. The number of free places at the State schools varies from one-twentieth at the Metropolitanskole to one-third at Sorö, the usual proportion being one-sixth of the entire number of places in the school. In answer to my inquiries I found no apprehension that the poor boy of brilliant parts would not obtain the education he was fitted for. The fear rather was that they might have an educated proletariat in Denmark. It is to be further noted that no less than 20 of the 29 headmasters at these particular schools were seminarists, *i.e.*, had been at a training college for elementary teachers, eight of the rest being university graduates.

The State has a further security that its grants are wisely employed in the amount of publicity which it exacts from aided schools, over and above that which is required from the non-aided. Nearly all the particulars about the aided schools, which the public has any right to know, may be found set forth in Asmussen from year to year. For example in the issue for the years 1893–94 which was published in 1895,* there are given on pages 127 to 145 such particulars about the work of each school as cannot be tabulated. On pages 146 to 155 will be found the number of boys and of girls in each class of each school, and also the occupations of the parents. On pages 156 to 219 are the names of both permanent and visiting teachers in each school with date of birth, qualification, length of service, subjects which each undertakes and number of hours he works in each week. The next 63 pages are taken up with the time-tables of each school and a full list of the text-books in use. The tables extending from pages 284 to 291 give the school fees, the reduction for brothers, the number of free places or

* I give the references to this volume rather than to that for the following year, because through the kindness of the Danish Education Office, there are several copies of it in London libraries, *e.g.*, at the College of Preceptors, at the Teachers' Guild, 74, Gower Street, at the Education Department Library, 43, Parliament Street, S.W., at the office of the Technical Education Board in Spring Gardens, and at the Guild Hall Library. All these copies, moreover, are annotated at critical parts for the benefit of the English reader. I would here render grateful acknowledgment to the work in question for any insight I may have gained into the character and spirit of Danish secondary schools. In the winter of 1894 and 1895 I visited many typical schools, Asmussen in hand; and after getting the headmasters with the help of the index to go through with me each of the references to his own school, and discuss and explain the problems and difficulties that arose by the way, I had little difficulty in grasping the full significance of its very clear tabulated statements.

places half free, with the authority that provides them, the amount of the legacies of the school, and of the contribution from the State, the Amt and the Commune with an indication as to whether the children of teachers are received free or otherwise. Lastly come abstracts of the school accounts. As it is desirable to see in what form these are presented, I will extract entire the printed accounts of a private recognised Realskole of about 100 boys.

Receipts.	Kr.	öre.	Expenditure.	Kr.	öre.
Public grants from State, Amt, and Commune	2,700	0	Salaries (principal and permanent staff)	6,661	69
School fees	6,323	0	Visiting teachers	408	0
Entrance fees	46	0	School and gymnasium furniture	150	41
Fire insurance (4 kroner each pupil)	308	0	Books and apparatus	125	0
Other receipts	486	50	Prospectuses and advertisements, paper, ink, and postage	128	35
			Fire and light	300	0
			Cleaning	128	0
			Rates and taxes	62	43
			Repairs	385	42
			Interest and repayment of capital	1,514	20
Total	9,863	50	Total	9,863	50

It is to be remarked, with regard to these abstracts of accounts, that in one or two cases it is stated that the accounts have failed to come in,* and occasionally only approximate amounts are given, from which it would seem that the accounts are not audited. None of those from girls' schools (which receive, by the bye, but a small portion of the grant) are published. This is accounted for by the fact, which I have learnt only very recently from the Cultus-Ministerium, that there exists no absolute necessity "for the schools receiving grants to send "in accounts, and certain schools never do it. The publication "of them in Asmussen is founded on a sort of voluntary con-"vention with the schools, which thus dispense with giving "printed annual reports, as is done by most of the Latin "schools."

Wherever I went, though I heard teachers in Copenhagen express their satisfaction that it was no part of their duty to furnish the state with such full particulars of their schools, I could not find that teachers in the country felt it any great or serious burden. Indeed, in the case of a good school, many of

* Mr. J. Montgomery, in his evidence before the Royal Commissioners on Secondary Education (Question 13,145), says of the Endowed School accounts sent up to the Charity Commission: "The returns are very incomplete and very badly sent in."

the details are of such a character that it is a distinct advantage to the headmaster to have them made widely known. I would not say there are no faults in these country Realskoler. They could, of course, be better if more money was spent on them. The buildings would then be handsomer and the staff more efficient. To this last point the state is especially attentive, as will be seen from the ample facilities for further training, of which particulars were given above.

The schools have not yet reached their final development; but, even in their present condition they constitute with the private Latin schools and the Folkehöjskoler, a striking and perhaps unique example of the successful and harmonious blending of state control with private initiative and enthusiasm. They show how much can be done and at what little cost when the State and the individual go hand in hand. Such a union is hardly conceived as possible in England. In Denmark it is an accomplished reality.

In turning over the Danish estimates the instances where the State finds it well to help and stimulate private effort, both in education and in other fields, meet one at every turn. In addition to the five State seminaries for elementary teachers there are 12 State-recognised private seminaries drawing 53,400 kroner a year from public funds; and their students share with those in the State seminaries the 60,000 kroner set apart for the help of the poorer students in both. There are also 88 technical and evening schools scattered over the land which are mostly in the hands of private committees, and to these also the State makes yearly grants in addition to its contribution for the building. The State also encourages home industries to the extent of 30,000 kroner per year, and distributes this amount through a private society (Det Danske Husflidsselskab). A grant of 18,000 kroner is also made to help the introduction of sloyd into schools. It is the more remarkable that this sum should be handed over for the Sloyd Association to distribute because the subscribers to that Association do not contribute more than 300 or 400 kroner a year. Every aided society or institution gives year by year a full printed account of its work; and this, along with the reports of the inspectors, seems to be a sufficient guarantee to the State that its grants are well spent.

Perhaps the most striking instances of the reliance the Danish State places in private effort in fields outside education are afforded by the Royal Agricultural Society and the Hedese skab or Heath Society. The former receives from its 780 members 15,600 kroner in subscriptions and 10,500 kroner from interest of capital. To this the State not only adds 19,200 kroner for the ordinary purposes of the society, but furthermore makes the society responsible for spending, on its behalf, various specified sums, amounting to 38,300 kroner a year, in promoting the training of dairy workers, in journeys to see foreign developments of dairy work, in researches in plant culture, in experiments

with tools and machines, in improving the breed of pigs, and in the introduction of butter into new markets abroad.

The Hedeselskab receives in the present year 202,000 kroner from the State (its contributions from 4,000 or 5,000 members, and from various institutions amounting to 30,000 kroner, and its earnings and other receipts to about as much again). Of the State grant about one half goes to the development of the society's own properties. With regard to the other half, the society is the medium by which distribution is made (1) to 500 or 600 persons who make and enclose plantations and undertake to let them remain as such in perpetuity, and (2) to numerous small plantation unions which in 1892 comprised 14,855 members. In one year these members received from the society not only a large quantity of seed for the kitchen garden, but also five million fir plants and a million and a half of plants of other trees, which were to be placed in smaller groups around house or farm. The State itself and the Society aided by the State have since 1864 reclaimed more than 230 square miles of useless sand heath and peat bog. Though the greater part of this—about seven-elevenths—has been done by two different Departments of State, the special function of the voluntary society seems to have been to spur the State to greater efforts and to spread the movement through great masses of the population.*

I hope I may induce some of my countrymen to visit Denmark for themselves. The private teachers will find there an organisation of secondary education which they need not fear; and the statesman will find in individual, enthusiastic effort, helped and guided (but not too much helped and guided) by the State, a force of unsuspected power and economy, which is as ready to operate in England as in Denmark, when once the fitting conditions are introduced.

J. S. THORNTON.

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* I am drawing here upon Mr. Schröder's *Der danske Hedeselskab*, 1866–91. (Copenhagen, 1892.)

Education in Egypt.

The present condition of Egyptian education corresponds so closely with the history of the country and is so demonstrably the expression of an ideal of religion thoroughly Oriental working out in definite stages of political development, that some preface is necessary to any account of it. Moreover, European critics need reminding that what they see established in Egypt to the immense profit of the country is in many respects thoroughly against the grain of Mussulman genius and tradition, and that healthy organisation, with all that it implies, depends for its permanence and motive power on influences that spring entirely from other atmospheres. Egyptians have never yet learnt to govern Egypt.

Only one generation has come and gone since the children of all schools, of high grade or low, established by Government, were either orphans or offspring of helpless slaves, or were literally driven to the schools in gangs by soldiers with fixed bayonets. The late Minister of Public Instruction was by no means ashamed of the recollection that he himself was one of those who trooped in chains to the Government school, followed by heart-broken and wailing mothers. It is true that since the Arabist rebellion there has been a marked growth of real public sentiment in favour of education, even to an extent measured not only by the presentation of petitions for school provision to the personages commanding the public purse, but also by an effectual readiness to pay more even where fees are already substantial. For instance, when the great secondary school, the Tewfikieh, was moved from the heart of Cairo to the suburb Shoobrah and the fees were doubled, there were more candidates for admission than ever. And when later, in 1889, fees were raised again, there was a still larger number of applicants. More than this, in a country where the Government is expected to perform all maternal and paternal functions, it is remarkable that 83 per cent. of the total number of children in the schools pay fees.

The disinclination of the poorer people of the last generation to send their children to school does not mean that the Egyptians have no respect for learning, or even (quite another thing) for schools. The "Ulema" of Egypt (like the "Softas" of Turkey), the learned persons who *practise* learning, have always been the cream of the country, its officials, its teachers. But then the science *par excellence* is theology, and theology is the Koran. Now the centre of all theological teaching in Egypt has been the El-Azhar Mosque almost since its foundation nine centuries ago. It has therefore been the spring and origin of public instruction and still to an inconceivable extent influences the

country. It has dictated and still dictates methods and material to all the "voluntary" schools (as we should call them) of the lowest primary grade, where the mass of the people are educated, and to some other institutions of higher rank which have not yet fully realised the difference between rote-learning and the reasoning that results in solid fruit.

Every mosque comprises, of necessity, a place of worship, baths and latrines, a fountain, and an elementary school for children of both sexes. It may also contain every and any other eleemosynary institution, such as libraries, kitchens, higher schools, hospital, guest-houses, and so on. But the school is as indispensable as godliness and the cleanliness that is associated with it. Up to the time of Mehemet Aly this mosque school formed the sole type of school in the country, and the staples of education were language (of the Koran, naturally), religion, and such legal doctrine as could be extracted or inferred from the Koran. There arose therefore other institutions for the purpose of supplying instruction fitted for other technical purposes, and, furthermore, by a curious but quite natural process, various professions, for similar reasons, became *caste* professions. Thus the Copts, who, as Christians, are not of course admissible to or anxious to enter El Azhar and such like institutions, had quite monopolised the engineering, surveying, and book-keeping of the country. Scientific medicine was until recently, if not Greek or Jewish, confined to Mohammedans educated abroad. A child who could not go to school naturally learnt a trade from his father, and handed on the same means of livelihood to his son.

The need of help from abroad has always been felt very keenly by the most enlightened Egyptian rulers, even though an ignorant or impatient part of the community has always protested. When the forty students sent by Mehemet Aly to be educated in Europe returned to their native land in 1834, they were all summoned to pay their respects to their august master. After a gracious audience, he handed to each of them a French book dealing with the particular subject or science for the study of which the journey to the West had been made, and dismissed them from the presence to three months' imprisonment in the Citadel, with orders to remain in durance until they had translated the said books into Turkish. The works were no doubt valuable and were no doubt duly translated into Turkish; but no one now seems to read Turkish or to care to learn it, though it is still on the syllabus and has an Inspector to look after its interests.

Mehemet Aly, with all his faults, and for reasons which our consciousness of rectitude may not entirely approve, was a great stimulator of education. At any rate, he had no doubt about its importance in military matters. He could not expect El Azhar to produce soldiers trained to face troops equipped and drilled after Western fashions; nor could he find in the Muslim University the doctors and engineers that were necessary to his army. In the meantime, conscription and the exemptions granted to the privileged student class sent more pupils than ever to the

schools, imperfect as they were; and no officers were forthcoming. After the great Pasha had made his famous clean sweep of the older Mamelukes, he enlisted their eldest sons at once, and sent the younger ones, as military cadets, to a school in the Citadel. A second school was created in 1825, exclusively for the children of foreigners in the Pasha's service, with a more modern curriculum, one that included arithmetic, geometry, algebra, drawing, and Italian. (Italian, it may be noted, was the language of the instructors, and it still has official privileges which English lacks.) The next great move was the establishment of a school mission or agency in France, first forty and then a hundred young Egyptians being sent for training either strictly military or ancillary thereto. It will be observed that the association of France with Egyptian education is indeed, as things go, a tolerably long one; and at the period of which I am now speaking no students seem to have been sent to any other European country.

In 1836 was formed the first Council of Public Instruction; and it is interesting to read in the list of its members the names of the father and uncle* of the present accomplished Under-Secretary, who has thus a sort of hereditary interest in the fortunes of his Department. There were significant circumstances in the constitution of this council and in its acts. For the first, it should be noted that its members were almost all fresh from Paris, and therefore naturally gave the Egyptian system a French framework and many French ideas and methods. For the latter, it is remarkable that now for the first time the schools were opened to native Egyptians. Hitherto the Government schools had been established and maintained as nurseries for an alien army, for foreigners and children of foreigners; and if there was a vernacular at all, it was Turkish. But henceforward Arabs are admitted by right and not by connivance; Arabic is the vernacular and the Arabic empire begins to fret itself away from the Turkish. Fifty schools were thus established, on French models, of course; but as teachers had to be taken, untrained in any sense intelligible to our ideas, from El Azhar, not much could be expected in the way of profitable instruction. Yet at this period between eight and nine thousand pupils were being taught in special and secondary schools,—schools of music; military schools; schools of medicine, industrial chemistry, infantry, cavalry, artillery; marine and veterinary schools; schools of mines; polytechnic, agricultural, maternity, commercial, schools; schools of languages, arts and crafts; and in the primary schools. All these pupils were fed, taught, maintained, and some were even paid, by the State.

From 1848 to 1863, until Ismail came into power, little seems to have been effected in the way of progress. Indeed, most of the institutions gradually disappeared. Nassau Senior once

* Artin and Hekekyan Beys.

asked Hekekyan Bey what had become of the Council of Public Instruction established with such a flourish. "Abolished by Said," was the reply. Of the primary schools which were spread over all Egypt? "Abolished by Abbas and Said." Of the Preparatory Schools? "One exists, the other was abolished by Abbas." Of the Polytechnic School? "Abolished by Said." Of the School of Languages? "Abolished by Abbas. Shep-" heard's Hotel in the Esbekeeyeh was built to receive it. Mr. " Shepheard and his waiters are the successors of the Professors " of Arabic, Persian, Turkish, French, and English." Of the Cavalry School? "Abolished by Abbas." Of the Infantry School? "Abolished by Abbas." Of the Artillery School? " Abolished by Abbas." Of the Veterinary School? "Abo-" lished by Abbas." Of the Medical School? "Reduced by " Abbas. The pupils that remained at Said's accession (about " 100 instead of the 150 whom Mehemet Aly left there) were " taken by Said, and all sent by Said to serve as privates in " the army; young men who had given five or six years to the " study of medicine or surgery, every one of whom would have " diffused not only health but knowledge over the country." What then remains of the great provision made by Mehemet Aly for public instruction? "Nothing except one preparatory " school. Abbas and Said, though they differ on every other " question, agree in their hatred or their contempt of know-" ledge." Senior visited the public library at Cairo, and there found the shelves empty, and the rooms occupied by the clerks of the War Office. It is pleasant to be able to record that the exertions of Artin Pasha have resulted quite recently in the construction of a fine reading-room and library in El Azhar itself.

Such achievements as were actually secured in those early days were more apparent than real. El Azhar and its methods were stronger and growing even more steadily than European importations, which were not "to the manner born." What Ismail found were, in Cairo, and supported by Government, one primary, one secondary, one military school; a School of Medicine, Pharmacy, and Maternity; and, at Alexandria, a School of Marine,—all in a condition which Artin Pasha characterises as "sad," and even "pitiable."

Ismail's ideas were still as exclusively military as those of his predecessors, but the even qualified success of schools established by foreigners, mostly missionaries, led him further on the way. He even went so far as to engage a European Inspector General, under whose influence more special schools were started and fresh life put into the system of primary schools; and scholars began to come, for the first time in the history of modern Egypt, without compulsion. On the other hand, the teaching was still of a very poor order, and, to improve it, Dor Bey, the European aforesaid, established the training school Dar-el-Olum, but without much effect, for the students to be trained still came of necessity from El Azhar,

the pedagogic vices of which seem to be ineradicable. Still a service was performed even by these "sheikhs" as they are called, for imperfect as their information was, it served to inoculate the population from which they sprung and to which they returned with the idea of studies which the devout Mussulman had believed heretofore to be profane in the worst sense.

A commission was appointed in 1881 to make a report, but the results, for one reason and another, chiefly because of the political chaos, were of no importance; from 1885 however the affairs of the Ministry have been regularly and successfully administered, much progress having been made in spite of great difficulties not solely financial.

Of missionary schools mention has already been made. Until the re-organisation of later years, and until the schools ceased to be merely institutions for feeding the military colleges, the whole of the provision open to foreigners of the ordinary civil population was made by the various religious bodies or by the priests of each nationality. Of this class of schools there is still a large number either connected with a community or of the "private adventure" type; but the admirably organised Government schools have gone a long way towards driving these out of the field, especially as the Government schools have so many advantages to help them in the preparation of pupils for the official certificates which are becoming indispensable to candidates for the public service. In these missionary schools, of course, Arabic is very rarely taught, and for this reason as well as because of their generally proselytising character, few Mussulman children attend them.

There are, it is easy to see, schools of many kinds at work in Egypt. Most of them, however, fall into fairly distinct classes. At the bottom of the system are the "Kuttabs," or Mosque schools. Few of these are good, even for the humble purposes to which they are supposed to address themselves. They are in the primary area what El Azhar and its like are in the higher; the teaching would appear to Europeans of exceedingly small value. Take the subjects of study for which thousands of pupils flock to the great Cairo University. Under the main head of "Rational Sciences" are the following: Syntax; Grammar, derivations and conjugations; Rhetoric, idea, invention, explanation, style (figures or ornaments of speech), composition; Versification, metrical and poetical; Logic; Canon Law; Terminology of Tradition. Under the main head of "Imposed or Positive Sciences," the following: Lessons and Orthoëpy of the Koran; Traditions; Exegesis of the Koran; Law, Jurisprudence, Succession. Science coming under both heads: Dogma.

It is not, then, remarkable that the Kuttabs should be unsatisfactory. The teacher may be anyone and may be appointed anyhow. He may be, and often is, blind; after all, his chief, in many cases, his only business is to hear little children recite

passages from the Koran. Sometimes writing also is taught and even arithmetic; but only 46 of all the Kuttabs in the country are inspected by the Ministry of Public Instruction, and the inspection possible hitherto has been of a very inadequate character, though it has made them cleaner and more decent. They may be "private adventure" schools, and the premises may be (and often are) abominably insanitary. They may exist on the offerings of grateful and pious parents, or they may have endowments paid regularly or irregularly through the Wakfs Administration, which is a purely native office, under the headship of the Khedive, a kind of combination of our Charity and Ecclesiastical Commissions.

There is some idea of helping the most necessitous of this class by grants from the Treasury, and a small sum has been appropriated for this purpose; but it is felt that any money expended without proper guarantees for its effective application to education might do more harm than good. Premises will have to be improved and steps taken to ensure the fitness of teachers and the reality of the instruction, a triple task of formidable difficulty. There are at present a large number of Sheikhs in training at a college attached to the Nasrieh School, a great institution of the secondary type, under a native head, Emin Bey Samy. There was originally a training college of this character at Dar-el-Olum, but it had to be suppressed as a hot-bed of religious fanaticism and obscurantism. There are here, as elsewhere, a fair number of competent Europeans on the school staff, and something may be done by accustoming young Sheikhs to see European methods and practices in a great school; but it must be felt by anyone who casts an experienced eye upon them that the work of training will be slow and arduous. Teachers in this grade of schools are not, as in other grades, Civil Servants, a consideration very pertinent to the question of quality and area of supply. No doubt the system of inspection applied to the Kuttabs will approximate to European thoroughness as the progress of public opinion and official organisation permit. We shall see then certain improvement in premises and in the fashion of their maintenance. After all, the real soul of the country lies in these "elementary" schools, as we should call them. It is wisely proposed that any grant to be made to the Kuttabs shall be given in consideration of "secular" subjects of instruction alone. This is exceedingly necessary, if only to make them available for the non-Mussulmans, chiefly Copts, to whom they would be a great boon.

Above the Kuttabs are the Government primary schools of the second grade. There are only nine of these, but they serve in some sort as types of what the Kuttabs should be. They teach "the three R's" in Arabic exclusively, and apparently do well, proceeding regularly by means of a graduated and recognised standard of class promotion and examination.

From these again are differentiated the primary schools of the first grade, which all teach one European language, English or

French. Primary schools are of course established all over Egypt, but in the towns only. The peasant does not want to read and write, and sees no advantage to be gained by such accomplishments; but the townsman knows their value, and has always the chance of becoming by their aid an Effendi in a frock-coat and in receipt of Government pay honestly earned. Only about half of the teachers in these schools have had any kind of training, and until lately the machinery for preparing them has been very imperfect.

Now, however, there are training departments attached to the two great secondary schools (Tewfikieh and Khedivieh) administered by directors of marked ability, Messrs. Peltier and Elliot, as heads of the respective schools. As yet neither of these institutions seems to secure a proper supply of students of parts adequate for the extremely important work to be done. At the Tewfikieh School the medium of instruction for pupils above the lowest class is French; at the Khedivieh School English; and the students in training are in turn subjected to a like system. These two great schools, like the Ras-el-Tin school at Alexandria, are amply staffed and well lodged. The stronger part of the staff in each college is made up of English and French material selected with extraordinary care. In France, indeed, the Egyptian Government still maintains a "scholastic mission," the most striking testimony to the influence of France on Egyptian education. The English teachers, who are doing work not less valuable than their French colleagues, have been mostly selected by the present Secretary-General, Mr. Douglas Dunlop, to whom the cause of Egyptian education owes a debt less only than that which it owes to its historian by hereditary right and its moving spirit, Yacoub Artin Pasha. And besides these Europeans, there are also at work in the schools a score or more of native students trained in English and French normal colleges and rendering very efficient service. One of them pointed out to me, with much pride, that he was actually carrying into effect certain plans and practices which I had especially enjoined on him and his comrades. Egyptians are, indeed, excellent imitators, but they are not usually strong in initiative, and they accept new ideas only under pressure, friendly or other.

It is interesting to note that a large number of schools not subventioned or regulated by Government are brought into close touch with the Public Instruction Department by means of the public certificate examinations. And it must be remembered that in Egypt, unlike what obtains in other and more advanced countries, it is the Government and governmental examinations that represent the progressive and reforming element. So far, it is not uniformity but life and progress which the official organisation has aimed at. In 1896, of the 1,302 candidates who presented themselves for the Primary Certificate, only 664 belonged to Government schools; and of the 144 candidates who were examined for the Secondary Certificate, the private schools sent 68. On the other hand, the Government schools,

with their better staffs and more efficient organisation have always produced the largest number of successes in these examinations, as was to be expected. The English Education Department, too, has created a precedent of some importance by recognising service in the St. Mary's Mission Schools in Cairo as qualifying for "Parchment Certificate" after the same period of probation as is required in England, on condition of favourable report after inspection by an official of the Egyptian ministry. French teachers at work in Egypt are still French civil servants, qualifying for pensions under the French government as well as for Egyptian pensions, so that the English Education Department is by no means carrying generosity to extravagant lengths in permitting English teachers who venture abroad to proceed "by accumulation" to the certificate which qualifies them to take charge of a school.

Very serious questions are raised when we come to consider female education in Egypt. To many most enlightened Mussulmans any instruction given to girls beyond a memory knowledge of as much Koran as will save the soul, is danger and temptation. The Oriental distrust of women is ineradicable, and the fact must be recognised as a grave difficulty. Before the law, the Mohammedan woman has in many respects positive advantages over men. No legislation has been as careful of women's rights to property, at all events, as the Islamic code. But learning is not for them. Yet the idea of female education is not new in Egypt of this generation. The present offices of the Public Works Department were built to be a great girls' school. It is of good augury that more and more girls every year are coming into the schools of the lowest grade, and the two large Cairo schools, recognised in 1895, one of which is now under Miss Forbes, herself a pupil of the Cambridge Teachers' College, promise well. But the great puzzle here is how to get sufficient and competent teachers. No native woman has ever been properly trained as a teacher; and though girls have been admitted to the Women's Medical and Maternity School, they have been excused from passing even the examination for the Primary Certificate. There could be no more fascinating field, one would think, open to the earnest and cultivated woman teacher than the chance of sowing the seeds of educational progress in such ground as this; and it is pleasant to think that a good start has been made.

The Sanieh Girls' School, which contains now about 200 pupils, will be made more important by impending changes. Twenty-five years ago, by way of providing a sop and (some say) a disillusion for European critics, Ismail founded this school under the headship of one of his dressmakers. The better class of girls were not attracted by this distinguished administration, so that the school lost prestige, which the subsequent history of its staffing never quite enabled it to recover. It was not till 1895 that the girls' schools were made to take the boys' syllabus, and now they begin a stage lower, that is, they are

allowed two years to get through the boys' first year syllabus, taking a modicum of a European language only in their second year. The Abbassieh school was built originally by the Railway Administration to provide for the children of its employees, mostly, of course, European and English. English is therefore naturally the chief medium of teaching, with Arabic on which to build the upper structure. There is room for 100 children, and 70 names are on the books. Only those who know the East can conceive what a revolution is implied in the fact that mothers and even brothers and fathers interview the head mistress to discuss the progress and prospects of her charges.

Before passing to the professional and technical schools, a short study of the statistics of general education will be very instructive.

To begin with, the increase in numbers is steady, as we should expect in a community which is enabled by vigilant and honest administrative progress to grow wealthy. During the cholera epidemic of 1896 the classes in over-crowded schools were reduced, and schools were even closed; but there was hardly any falling off in the number of pupils under the control of the Department. In 1887 the number was 1,919. By 1895 it had grown to 10,975, and in 1896 it was 10,749. Of these last, the 46 "Kuttabs" inspected contained 1,942 boys and 227 girls; there were 320 boys in the nine primary schools of the second grade; 6,715 boys and 247 girls in 39 primary schools of the first grade; 673 boys in the three great secondary schools. There were also 725 boys in technical schools and professional colleges, of which more detailed mention will be made presently. Of the total number of pupils under instruction, 6,171 were learning either French or English pretty thoroughly, an addition to the curriculum of supreme importance if western ideas and straight-going western ways are ever to affect Egyptian civilisation and provide Egypt with a backbone.

The population of Egypt is somewhere about seven millions, and with the happy exception of that part of the community which contains the main body of drones and parasites, the usurers and the sellers of hasheesh and vile drinks, it is increasing rapidly. According to European ideas we should estimate the number of children of school age at a million; but in schools organised and inspected by the state we find hardly more than a ninth of that number. Here then is a great field for national endeavour, and therefore, it may be added, national expenditure. If the people, the fellaheen, are ever to become intelligent, self-reliant, and strong, the budget of the Public Instruction Department will have to be increased enormously. Private beneficence and local effort seem to have expended themselves already in the endowments generally controlled by the Wakfs administration; and it is not to be expected that within any measurable period the generosity which gave so much to religious purposes will give as much to an education which is not meant to promote Islam. Yet from remote villages come sometimes the cleverest candidates

for the primary certificate. There are schools in Wady Halfa and Suakin whose popularity is shown by the steady increase of paying pupils; and communities five hundred miles away from Cairo, teaching their children under great disadvantages, have been known to pass every candidate presented.

The supply of teachers and the general improvement of the *personnel* of administration is still the great task. Unless teachers are trained in some methods better than the traditional mosque method, the teaching is futile; and trained teachers are most unwilling to go up country. The very examinations are conducted under excruciating difficulties by the Europeans who struggle so manfully to maintain a standard conformable to western notions of fair dealing. I have seen two youths in the central Cairo prison who had been parties to a case of fraudulent impersonation, though this kind of crime, to be sure, is not particularly Oriental. But I can think of only obscure English parallels to the case of the Maltese Christian boy who secured 100 per cent. of marks on his Arabic paper, heading the whole list of successful candidates, because (his rivals said) he was wise enough to introduce Koranic benedictions at the beginning and end of his paper.

Enough has now been said to show that there is a great deal of hopeful life in Egyptian education, primary and secondary. It happens to be in excellent hands, which effect, with the narrow means available, what weaker and less capable agents could not effect with much more generous equipment. It is simple truth to say that where the Department of Public Instruction really penetrates, the work done loses nothing by comparison with schools of a similar grade in Europe; and as there is, in a sense, a clearer field for the expert and reformer, Egypt has in some respects even greater advantages.

Let us consider now the general character of the institutions fed by the two great lower grades, and the extent to which they provide a satisfactory supply to the higher or tertiary grade. It will be easily understood that though the political cataclysms to which Egypt has been subjected have had an area as wide as the annual river-flooding, they have still left institutions or traces of institutions almost in spite of themselves. We have already seen how deep are the roots of primary and secondary education, with all their modern apparatus; but there are, besides, schools and colleges of a strictly technical type, of by no means recent creation. Mehemet Aly started with fitness for military purposes as his criterion or standard of value in education. His successors, and Ismail in particular, with less genius, and making some apparent concessions to European prejudices in favour of other criteria, hardly improved on Mehemet's ideal. Indeed, they made it worse by meretricious adaptations to the least solid European ideas that they could find. Nowadays, however, it is to be hoped that the efforts of the two nations mainly concerned in the rehabilitation of Egypt are doing much to foster the good and destroy the evil in the older primary,

secondary, and even tertiary institutions. Of these last there is still a fair supply. The law schools are in a particularly flourishing condition. That one which is supported by the Egyptian Government is remarkable if only for the fact that all its students pay fees; and the teaching therein has become so efficient, that one of the practices least satisfactory from the national point of view, the migration of young Egyptians to Europe for the purpose of securing a legal education, is no longer the undesirable necessity which it was until recently. The other school depends entirely on the French Government.

The School of Medicine is in some respects well able to hold its own with the best in Europe. Active work in bacteriology is being prosecuted under a specialist of European reputation; and the chairs of physiology and chemistry are held by men of great distinction. To the layman, the bacteriological laboratory in particular appears a marvellously complete installation. A somewhat notable department of this school is a collection, made under the direction of the chief pharmaceutical chemist of the sanitary department, of all the drugs of all the nations, together with their fraudulent imitations and adulterations—a very necessary provision in a country where all the doctors of all the world are free to practice and prescribe what they like out of any pharmacopœia. This school has already demonstrated its great usefulness. It has earned additional funds for its own improvement by making analyses for the courts of law—for poisoning is a too common crime in Egypt—and during the cholera epidemic students and staff did yeoman service. Attached to the women's hospital is a maternity and nursing school, the value of which in an Oriental country cannot be overstated. This, of course, is fed from the girls' schools already described.

The Agricultural School on the Ghizeh road is particularly promising. Indeed, it has already made investigations and produced results of prime importance to the country. Here each student has his own plot of ground, which he is required to cultivate with his own hands entirely, and from which he is allowed to draw the whole profits, such as they are. There are pupils of all classes here, and from all parts of the country; and I know of boys of exceedingly wealthy parentage, now in Europe completing their European education, who look forward to proceeding in due time to this institution. The school is not particularly well or completely designed at present, and there is some idea of uniting it with the Polytechnic School, when certain parts of the curriculum common to both schools can be provided for under the same roof, especially, of course, such subjects as chemistry. By some mischance, the Agricultural School was for a time deprived of its experiment or demonstration ground, which to such an institution and in such a country was exactly the ha'porth of tar the lack of which ruined the proverbial ship.

The Polytechnic School has not been happy, and recently contained no more than seventeen students—a number quite

inadequate to supply the needs of the Board of Public Works. Its efforts have been too ambitious. It is not speculative or university education which Egypt calls for, but practical and applicable teaching; it can wait for the *summa axiomata*, but the *media axiomata* are its life-blood. Reorganisation is imminent at the time of writing this, and we may expect the changes contemplated to add enormously to the profits of a country to whose material progress surveying and mechanical engineering, particularly in relation to hydraulics, are all in all.

The military school is, of course, under English direction, and is spoken of by competent authorities as doing its work well; its need is only too easily demonstrated.

The Technical School at Boulak is a very active and progressive institution. The work which it is doing is said by a recent and very competent authority, well acquainted with the local technical schools in England, to be as good as anything done in England. It is full to its utmost capacity, and its pupils find immediate employment, chiefly, of course, in the public service, though many have secured very valuable posts under private employers. This latter kind of demand is the more hopeful. It implies a great growth of private enterprise and opportunity.

The training colleges I have already discussed. No need cries so loud for attention as this. Teachers—native teachers—are wanted everywhere. Europeans may and can do admirable work, but the mass of the people must be got at through their own folk, who are conversant with their own traditions and ways of looking at things. Europeans can rarely place themselves at the Oriental's point of view or follow the working of the Oriental mind. English people are beginning to find out that the best teacher of French or German to English boys is an Englishman who has been in close converse and touch with French and German; so, too, the best teacher of Orientals is an Oriental who knows where the native pitfalls lie. *Governing* is a different matter, and it is therefore hard to say how long it will take to train up Oriental inspectors to inspect and organise with a single eye to honest efficiency regardless of friend or foe, stranger or relative. Much is to be expected from the recent appointment of an energetic Secretary General,—an immense strengthening of the hands of Yacoub Artin Pasha in the object so near to his heart, the effective co-ordination of the agencies making for the real education of Egypt.

The Superior Council of Public Instruction, an old and, till latterly, an unwieldy institution, has recently been reconstituted. It is now a working board of five members, consisting of the Minister and the Under Secretary (at present Fakhry Pasha and Artin Pasha) and three others from outside the Department. It meets once a month, or oftener, at the discretion of the Minister. The School Management Committee, composed exclusively of experts in the service of the Department, prepares measures and proposals for the Superior Council. The most recent changes in the organisation of the Department itself will make inspection

and administration the work of one body responsible to the one authority, a reform of great need and importance.

The immediate *official* problem is how to train, in Egypt, a sufficient number of Egyptians to fill the posts necessary for the efficient working of the Civil Service. It has been found that the recently existing organisation of syllabuses and examinations has drawn out the school and college life of the aspirants to excessive length. It is bad for the practical training of even a European youth to keep him till he is almost a man at the secondary school. The Oriental matures long before the European, and he easily runs to seed unless he is brought rapidly into contact with practical life and actual problems. Much, then, may be expected from the recent reduction of the secondary school course from five to three years. This will send the pupils to the various technical and special schools with two years in hand, and we may hope to find a large number of candidates presenting themselves for the secondary leaving certificate and passing with it to the great tertiary institutions.

P. A. BARNETT.

Education of Girls and Women in Spain.

Spanish women receive their education as a rule **(1)** at the national schools (ESCUELAS PÚBLICAS), **(2)** at the normal schools (ESCUELAS NORMALES), **(3)** at the public schools (INSTITUTOS) and universities, and **(4)** at private schools and associations. As education at home in Spain is very rare, we will make no allowance for their numbers.

1. The NATIONAL SCHOOLS are supported by town councils, and divided into infants', elementary, and high schools, at which girls receive a progressive education sufficient for their age.

The infants' schools admit children from three to seven. Of late years, in some of them, tuition is given under the Froebel or Montesinos system, but in most it consists of *reading, writing* on slate, *counting, catechism,* and *religion* as formerly. These schools were not fully organised until March 1882, when Señor Don José Luis Albareda, Minister of National Education, placed them under the entire management of women, established a special class wherein to prepare their first teachers, and created the *Patronato General de las Escuelas de Párvulos* to superintend this branch of education. Since then, only at infants' schools newly established, the posts of schoolmistresses are filled by competition, whilst the Board of the *Patronato* elects those to fill vacancies in the rest of these schools. The Board attends more to the natural capacity for teaching than to the theoretical knowledge of the teachers. The posts are only given for a certain number of years, generally five, with a right of re-election, provided the work of the teacher has been satisfactory.

The elementary schools are divided into complete, incomplete, and temporary (*de temporada*), the latter being occasional schools that open or close according to the number of children employed in connexion with agricultural work. The tuition at the elementary schools consists of *reading, writing, elementary grammar, arithmetic, geography* and *geometry, catechism, sacred history, religion,* and *good manners.*

Though primary education is compulsory in Spain by a Royal decree of the 21st July 1838, as well as by the law of July 17, 1857, due to Señor Don Claudio Moyano, nevertheless, according to figures in the Report of 1862–63 of the General Board of Statistics of Spain, extending from 1857 to 1861, out of a population of 15,673,471 there were 7,907,973 women, of whom 389,095 were able to read but not to write, whilst there were 6,802,807 who were unable to read, which gives a total of 7,191,902 women with incomplete instruction or none whatever. The present figures are less unsatisfactory, since out of an actual population of 17,500,000, of whom about 8,500,000 are women, the number of those who have an incomplete education or none at all has been reduced to about 6,000,000.

At the high schools the elementary education is completed by advanced classes in the same subjects, and the addition of

geography and *history of Spain, hygiene,* and *domestic economy. Needle* and *fancy work* are taught in all the national schools. The education given at PRIVATE SCHOOLS resembles more or less that of national schools.

The statistics in reference to the above schools, and their attendance for the period 1857–61, are—

National Schools for Girls.		Girl Pupils.	Private Schools for Girls.	Girl Pupils.
Infants' schools -	125	2,135	95	1,397
Complete schools -	4,471	295,835	1,212	52,417
Incomplete „ -	148	45,004	530	12,509
Temporary „ -	72	1,072	—	—
High Schools -	14	1,149	7	300
Mixed (Boys' and Girls') Schools -	2,149	26,775	396	2,844
Total -	7,679	371,970	2,240	69,467

National schools -	7,679	Girls (national schools) -	371,970
Private schools -	2,240	Girls (private schools) -	69,467
Total -	9,919	Total -	441,437

On the other hand, according to the report of the *Direccion General de Instruccion Publica* for the 10 years 1870–80, there were 1,152,420 children between three and six, out of whom only a fourth, viz., 287,757, attended national schools. Now, considering that pupils in private schools are about a fifth of the number of those in the national schools, there is little doubt that the greater number of the remainder, 864,663 children, did not attend any school at all. However, comparing the statistics for 1870–80 with those for 1857–61, there is an increase of 147,406 girls in national schools and of 117,143 girls in private schools in favour of the period 1870–80.

There is still another consideration to be taken into account, *i.e.*, that in the period from 1870 to 1880 there were in Spain three wars, viz., the Carlist, the Republican, and the Cuban war, all three at once, which, no doubt, interfered a great deal with the progress of public education in the country. But in spite of that, only 2,026 national schools were closed in that period, the total number of those open being reduced to 22,327, and even then, the 14 high schools existing in 1857–61 were increased to 43, and the 125 infants' schools to 332, the total number of national schools in the year 1878 at the pacification of the country being 29,000, against 24,353 in the period 1857–61.

I have not been able to see the Report for 1881–85, but from particulars in my possession there is good reason to conclude that the development of national education has been in constant progress, as may be seen by the following statistics for the four years 1883–87.

A.—NUMBER OF SCHOOLS.

	For the whole of Spain (49 Provinces).	For the District of the University of Zaragoza (6 Provinces).			
	1857–1861.	1883–4.	1884–5.	1885–6.	1886–7.
National schools -	7,679	1,576	1,670	1,668	1,702
Private schools - -	2,240	125	96	99	107
Totals - -	9,919	1,701	1,766	1,767	1,809

B.—ATTENDANCE.

	For the whole of Spain (49 Provinces).		For the District of the University of Zaragoza (6 Provinces).			
	National Schools.	Private Schools.	Both National and Private Schools.			
	1857–1861.		1883–4.	1884–5.	1885–6.	1886–7.
Totals -	371,970	69,467	80,155	88,107	83,778	89,608
	441,437		341,648			

2.—NORMAL SCHOOLS FOR TEACHERS.—The first normal school in Spain dates from 1842. It was founded in Guadalajara at the Hospital of *San Juan de Dios*, under the name of *Escuela Normal de Niñas.** Others similar soon followed, and finally the *Escuela Normal Central de Maestras*, de Madrid, was established, when the normal schools for girls were to be converted into normal schools for teachers, a step destined to make a great improvement in the education of Spanish women, since the new schools were to be especially devoted to the preparation of a professional body of teachers for elementary, high, and normal schools, under an uniform and complete system. The normal schools for teachers were also reorganised by Señor Don José Luis Albareda, on the occasion of filling the post of head-mistress at the Central Normal School at Madrid. By two Royal Orders of the 8th of June 1881, he prescribed a more extended study of the subjects already taught and added others, viz.: *Law, Literature, Fine Arts, Natural Science,* and *French*, for which another year was allowed. Finally, he wrote out a new programme for the competition for posts such as this.

* La Fuente, Historia de las Universidades en Espana.

By a later Royal Decree (13th of August 1882), Señor Albareda completed his work in favour of Spanish women's education, by confiding to them the entire management of these schools, as he had done before with the infants' schools.

The attendance at the normal schools of Madrid, Ciudad Real, Guadalajara, Segovia and Toledo, depending on the University of Madrid, from 1881 to 1886, is shown by the following statistics, which figures are those of subjects in which students matriculated, the actual number of students being about a fifth of these numbers.

1881–2.	1882–3.	1883–4.	1884–5.	1885–6.
3,284	4,058	[?]	3,734	2,159
At the normal school of *Cardenal Cisneros* opened in Madrid				2,267
			Total -	4,426

In 1884–5 the beginning of the term was delayed for a month on account of the circumstances of the country.

The statistics of the normal schools of Zaragoza, Huesca, Logroño, Pamplona, Soria, and Teruel, depending on the University of Zaragoza, from 1883 to 1887, are as follows:—

1883–4.	1884–5.	1885–6.	1886–7.
5,798	5,931	5,252 + 18 (Pr.)*	4,795 + 122 (Pr.)*

The above figures are also those of the subjects matriculated in which students matriculated.

The statistics for the above six *Escuelas Normales de Maestras*, depending on the University of Zaragoza, are as follows:—

Years.	Pupils trying for the title of teacher.	Pupils that succeeded.	Certificates given by Government authorities.	Certificates *with situation* given by the Rector of the University of Zaragoza.
1883–4 -	282	248	86	82
1884–5 -	344	293	126	97
1885–6 -	350	279	99	66
1886–7 -	294	261	106	155
Total -	1,270	1,081	417	300

* The figures preceding the letters Pr. signify the number of women studying *privately*, under Royal decrees of 22nd Nov. 1883, and 5 Feb. 1886, and Royal Order of 7 April 1886.

The General Report on National Education for 1885-95 has not yet been published, and I have been unable to obtain statistics from the Bureau.

Now, in order to understand the amount of knowledge imparted to the girls in the national schools, as well as in the normal schools, it only remains to specify the knowledge required from the governesses in the competition by which they are elected.

The exercises for the examinations are (*a*) in writing; (*b*) viva voce; (*c*) practical:—

(*a.*) There are three different EXERCISES IN WRITING, viz.: (1) Solution and explanation of a problem in arithmetic; (2) Parsing of a sentence: (3) An essay on pedagogy. (1.) *Solution and explanation of a problem in Arithmetic.*—Before this exercise takes place, the examiners meet in private, three of them, at least, proceeding to write down 20 problems on as many separate papers. A copy of these problems is signed by all the examiners, then the competitors are called in, and the problems are put into a box in their presence. Then one of the competitors, chosen by the others, draws out of the box one of the papers, which she delivers to the president, who reads it aloud, its contents being at once written down on the blackboard. When all the examinees have copied it down, two hours are given for the solution and written explanation of the problem, which, being done, a motto is written by each examinee at the head of her paper, which is sealed in an envelope bearing the same motto. The envelope is then handed to the president, who puts it under lock and key. On the evening of the same day the second paper is set. (2.) *Parsing.*—An hour before the appointed time the examiners meet and agree upon the book out of which the sentence has to be chosen, and on the book being asked for from the library, an examinee is chosen by the competitors themselves to open at random a page of the book selected, from which, or from either the next page or the one before, the examiners may take the sentence. As this exercise is intended to be a trial of the capacity as well as the grammatical knowledge possessed by the competitors, it is not written on the blackboard, but dictated. The examinees write it carefully (as this is also an exercise in handwriting) on a piece of paper stamped with the seal of the university, at the head of which paper each candidate writes the same motto as that employed in her former exercise. Then in two hours' time they are obliged to deliver the paper with the explanation of the parsing, sealed in an envelope bearing the same motto. (3.) *Essay on*

Pedagogy.—As many numbers as there are lessons contained in the programme of that subject are put into a box, and a number is drawn out by one of the competitors; then the question to which the number refers is read and copied down, and three hours are allowed for the treatment of the subject. The work, as well as the envelope bearing the same motto, are handed to the President.

All the work done up to this time by the examinees is distributed among the examiners, who report thereon in due time. On the second day the *vivâ voce* exercise takes place.

(*b.*) For the VIVÂ VOCE EXERCISE the examinees are ballotted to fix the order of their examination. Then the name of each subject for examination is written on a slip of paper, and put into a box, while another box is filled with as many numbers as there are questions in that programme of subjects which has the greatest number. The examinee draws then in turn three papers from one box, and six numbers from the other, which will show the three various subjects, and two questions to be answered from each one. Any number too high for its subject is drawn again for. The subjects are the same, as already mentioned in describing the tuition given at the respective schools.

The examination of each competitor lasts for six hours daily, in either one or two sittings, until it is finished. The examiners have a right to make observation on the answers to the several questions, but 20 minutes only are allowed for each candidate.

(*c.*) PRACTICAL EXERCISE.—This always takes place in a school. There, in the presence of all, two practical questions are set for the candidate to be examined, of which she chooses one, and gives a lesson of an hour to the children upon it. If the lessons are to be continued for more than three days, another school is chosen. The examination in drawing follows. The examination in needlework and fancy work takes place at the Normal School for Mistresses, or at the High School for Girls, before the schoolmistresses' examiners, who report to their fellow examiners on the merits of the work, previous to the final decision of the Committee of Examiners. On the same day, or the next one, the examiners make their report on the merits of the examinees, and then these, in the same order as they are mentioned in the report, choose the vacant school which they prefer, provided it be the one they applied for in their application. The examiners then proceed to make another report accordingly, the final decision on which rests in certain cases with the rector

of the University, and in some others with the General Director of National Education.*

3. "INSTITUTOS" and UNIVERSITIES. The tuition called "*Enseñanza Oficial*" (official tuition) is now given in Spain at the *Institutos* (Public Schools) and Universities, under professors appointed by the Government; the former being kept up by the Provincial Councils, and the latter by the Government. At the Institutos the B.A. degree is obtained, and at the Universities the M.A.; whilst only the Universidad *Central* (of Madrid) confers degrees of Doctor. Studies for the B.A. degree may also be followed, under "*Enseñanza Privada*," at colleges called "Colegios de Segunda Enseñauza," but no colleges of this kind for girls have yet been established in Spain, and they may not attend the boys' colleges. Studies for the doctorate and the M.A. degrees, as well as for the B.A., may be also followed, under "*Enseñanza Doméstica*" (home tuition), under a professor with an official title, or by "*Enseñanza libre*" (self-instruction). In the first case the pupils are examined on the same programme as pupils under official tuition and "Enseñanza Privada," but their professors are not allowed to be among the examiners, whilst in the second case, the examinee is examined on a special programme, under a special committee of examiners. Women, as a rule, follow their studies under official or home tuition.

The *Institutos* may be considered to have existed as early as the first third of this century, since the Jesuits and the "Padres Escolapios" were both at that time keeping in Madrid two colleges in connexion with the University of Alcalá, for tuition in Litteræ Humaniores; and in 1839 another college of a somewhat private character was established by Señor de la Serna at Guadalajara. But tuition was not taken out of the hands of the religious associations, and made national and scientific under an organised system with official professors and programmes in *Institutos*, until 1845. This improvement, though in great part due to Señor Don Pedro José Pidal, Marquis of Pidal, is known as "*La Reforma de Gil y Zárate*," because the decree (17 Sept. 1845) was signed by Señor Don Antonio Gil y Zárate, then Director General of National Education. His work was further improved in 1857 perfected by "*La Reforma de Moyano*," which was soon altered in a restrictive sense by "*La Reforma de Orovio*,"† &c., but women were not allowed to follow the studies of a classical or scientific education, nor did they ever think of demanding this privilege.

The glory of this innovation belongs to the late Señor Don Francisco Ruiz Zorrilla, the first Minister of National Education of the *Revolucion de Septiembre*, for after his decree on

* Notwithstanding these difficult examinations, that require hard study, the salary of 187 women teachers in national schools in 1880 was 250 pesetas a year (10*l.*), while here were 26 receiving only 125 pesetas (5*l.*). In February 1881, *20,000,000* pesetas (*800,000l.*) were overdue to male and female teachers; this sum was reduced to *6,000,000* pesetas (*240,000l.*) in May of 1896.

† Don Claudio Moyano and Don Manuel de Orovio, Ministers of National Education.

Libertad de Enseñanza (Freedom of Education) in 1868, the Institutos and Universities were thrown open to women. Up to 1876 this experiment was only tried in a few cases. But in that year the settlement of the country was commenced by the counter-revolution initiated by the proclamation of Alfonso XII., and made remarkable progress under the broad views of the first ministry under the new political conditions. But, in fact, it has never gained much ground, through being an innovation on Spanish traditions, and not highly acceptable to women and priests. Even the Institutos and Universities do not seem to attach a great importance to the matter, since in their annual reports the statistics do not separate the numbers of male and female students matriculated and examined, mentioning only in the lists of students the names of women who obtain B.A. and other degrees.

At the Institutos and Universities, the tuition is carried out in *cursos académicos* (terms), beginning on the first of October of one year, and ending on the 31st of May of the following year. June and September are set apart for examinations (September especially for matriculation). July and August are vacation months. Students under self-instruction are examined in January and May.

At the *Institutos* the studies are divided into general and practical; the former may be followed at all the Institutos, whilst the latter are only established in those of important commercial towns. The *general* (Estudios Generales) are: *Group A.* Latin and Spanish (1st year); geography. *Group B.* Latin and Spanish (2nd year); history of Spain. *Group C.* Rhetoric and poetics; arithmetic and algebra; universal history; French (1st year). *Group D.* Psychology, logic, and moral philosophy; geometry and trigonometry; French (2nd year). *Group E.* Physics and chemistry; natural history (with elementary physiology and hygiene), and elementary agriculture. Lessons in geography, history, and French are given three times a week, the others daily. The lessons are from 1 hour to 1½ hours each. The *practical* studies (Estudios de Aplicación) consist of: Drawing (linear, topographic, ornamental, and free-hand); elementary mechanics applied to industry; elementary chemistry applied to arts; elementary topography (theory and practice); commercial arithmetic, accounts and book-keeping; commercial correspondence and transactions; political economy, law in connexion with industry and commerce; commercial geography and statistics; French, English, German, and Italian (at least two of them). Lessons in commercial geography are given twice a week (during one term); those on accounting, book-keeping, and Italian, three times a week (one term), and in the other languages, two terms; lessons in the remaining subjects, daily, during one term: drawing is not compulsory in any of the terms. At the end of each *curso* (term) an examination takes place, and at the end of the whole of the studies a general examination is required, after which the B.A. degree (Grado de

Bachiller) in general studies, and that of expert (Perito Mercantil) in practical studies are obtained. Only a certificate of B.A. enables a student to enter the University.

Medicine, in Spain as in England, is becoming a favourite profession among women. The course requires six years, one for the preparatory period, and five for that of the *Licenciatura*, after which a general examination takes place, which enables the student to obtain the title of Licenciate in Medicine, and to practice the profession. An extra year of studies enables the degree of M.D. to be obtained.

STATISTICS IN CONNEXION WITH MATRICULATION, EXAMINATION, AND DEGREES FOR WOMEN AT THE INSTITUTOS AND UNIVERSITIES OF SPAIN FOR THE PERIOD 1870–92.

Years.	Matriculation.		Specification.					Examinations.				Degrees conferred.		
			At the 50 Institutos.			At the 10 Universities.								
			Matriculated.											
	Students.	Total.	By Groups.	In Single Subjects.	Total.		Total.	Excellents.	Remarkable.	Prize.	Total.	B.A.	M.A.	M.D.
1870	1													
1871	0					Medicine - 7								
1872	8					Law - - - 1								
1873	5					Other subjects 4								
1874	4													
1875	2													
1876	3													
1877	11													
1878	33													
1879 } 1880 }	71													
1881	33		112	47	159		12	64	90	10				
		171					171				164	17		
1882	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	2
1884	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	1	—	—
1892	—	2	—	—	—	—	—	2	—	—	2	—	—	—
Total	—	173						66	90	10	166	18	—	2

Average fees, including matriculation and examination, for the term 1878–79 (8 months) :—

At the Institutos - - 100 pesetas (L. 4).
At the Universities - - 168 „ (L. 6·16).

Official statistics on female education at the Institutos and Universities do not exist.

4. PRIVATE ASSOCIATIONS.*—Among the associations devoted in Spain to the tuition of women, those of Madrid and Barcelona are the most important.

A. MADRID.—The object of the one at Madrid, called "ASOCIACIÓN PARA LA ENSEÑANZA DE LA MUJER" (the Association for the Tuition of Women) is to contribute to and improve the education of women in every position of life, and also to enable them to earn their living by teaching. It was founded in June 1870 by a priest, Señor Don Fernando de Castro, late Confessor to Queen Isabel II., at that time Rector of the University of Madrid, and it was a natural consequence of the Spanish Revolution of September 1868, to which the cause of the education of women in Spain owes so much.

Persons of both sexes may belong to the Association provided they pay not less than one peseta (9½*d.*) a month, the members having a right to propose at the general meetings any reforms they may think advisable, to elect the members of the board of directors, and to examine and approve the accounts.

The Association maintains schools and classes.

The schools are:—

I. Primary schools.
II. A secondary school.
III. A training school for governesses.
IV. A preparatory school.

The classes are:—

I. A special commercial class.
II. Class for librarians and archivists.
III. Special classes for languages.
IV. Drawing and painting.
V. Singing.
VI. Cutting-out and dressmaking.
VII. Needle and fancy work.
VIII. Sol-fa and piano classes.

I.—*Primary Schools.*

There are two primary schools, the Elementary School, founded on March 1st 1884, and the High School, in November 1883, both having two standards.

In the 1st Standard of the Elementary School children from five to seven years old are admitted, and in the second only those who have been through the 1st Standard.

At the High School girls only are admitted, who may be either those from the Elementary School of the Association or new-comers who have had similar previous instruction.

At both schools the tuition is given by six governesses, who must be High School mistresses, and by a Doctor in Civil Law.

* I have to thank most cordially Señor D. Manuel Ruiz de Quevedo, President of the "Asociación para la Enseñanza de la Mujer" (Madrid), and Señor D. Rosendo Serra, Professor at the "Escuela de Institutrices" (Barcelona), for their kind assistance in connexion with this part of my memorandum.

The subjects taught are: the Spanish and French languages, arithmetic, geometry, drawing, natural sciences, geography, history, religion, hygiene, fine arts, law, needle and fancy-work, gymnastics, hand-work, and singing.

No more than 30 pupils are allowed in each standard, or 120 in all, and each standard has its own school-room.

The term begins on the 15th September and ends on the 30th June. School hours are from 9 to 3, an hour being given for lunch and recreation.

The number of pupils from 1887 to 1892 has been:—

For the Elementary School - -	267
For the High School - - -	225
Total - -	492

II.—*Secondary School.*

This school only dates from 1894, and its object is to impart to the girls knowledge and practice as a general preparation for life, while it also offers a foundation for either higher or special studies.

Girls entering this school must be over 13, and well advanced in primary instruction, and must pass an examination in reading, writing, grammar, arithmetic, and the geography of Spain; but girls from the Association schools, either primary or preparatory, do not require to pass any examination.

The tuition is entrusted to 11 professors having official titles, and seven governesses and High School mistresses, the subjects being: the Spanish and French languages, advanced arithmetic, grammar and the geography of Spain, hygiene, pedagogy, practical law; and, besides, drawing, needle and fancy work, cutting-out and dressmaking, sol-fa and piano, these last being taught by the governesses and teachers.

Tuition lasts for two years, the term extending from the 1st October to the 31st May, lessons being given daily from 9 to 1.

No girl passes unless she succeeds in an examination held before all the professors and the head of the school, *nemine contradicente*. The fact of succeeding in the second year gives a right to enter, without examination, either the school for governesses, the special commercial class, or that for librarians and archivists.

III.—*School for Governesses.*

This was founded in 1869 by Señor Don Fernando de Castro, and from it the entire Association sprang.

Señor Don Fernando de Castro, whose energy was only equalled by his talents and philanthropy, and by his fulfilment of his sacred duties, found time for devoting himself and his means untiringly to the noble cause of the education of women, which had been very much neglected in Spain.

Finding that his disinterested aspirations were not favourably regarded in high quarters, he soon resigned his post as Confessor to the Queen rather than sacrifice his noble ideal to the advantages derived from his high position, and devoted himself to his University lectures.

But he was subsequently threatened with dismissal from his professorship at the University, a post which he had gained in open competition. Once more, however, he remained firm to his principles, and was ultimately deprived of his Chair. He had lost in a short time high position, favour, and fortune, but even in the miserable condition into which he had so unjustly been thrown, he never lost the respect of the public.

At a later period (September 1868), the Revolution made it its duty to restore his name, and placed him at the head of his beloved University; and it was then that he organised that series of lectures called "Sunday Lectures," which for many a day attracted to the University the most select, numerous, and attentive audiences ever assembled there. The best men that Spain at that time possessed in literature, science, arts, politics, and tuition rallied round him. Francisco de Paula Canalejas, the great critic and philosopher, F. Asenjo Babieri, the composer, José Moreno Nieto, the orator, lawyer, and scholar, and to mention also some still living, José de Echegaray, the great mathematician and dramatist, Francisco Pí y Margall, and Emilio Castelar, both amongst our best orators and writers, and soon after called to be Presidents of the first Spanish Republic—all these volunteered as lecturers under that generous man a little time before so persecuted for defending the cause of the weak.

The practical result of those lectures was the organisation of an association for the extension of knowledge among women.

Señor Don Fernando de Castro died soon after, in 1874, but not before seeing his name restored and his ideal flourishing. He left his fortune and his books to the Association, which amongst his friends and pupils is known as *La Asociacion de Don Fernando.*

At the School for training Teachers the tuition comprises:—

Languages and Literature.—1. Elementary ideas on language; elements and history of the Spanish language; composition (Spanish); correspondence and documents usual in social life. 2. Advanced French; translation and conversation; French literature. 3. English or German (with translation and composition).

Geography and History.—1. General and commercial geography; geography of Spain. 2. General history; history of Spain.

Fine Arts.—1. Fine Arts. 2. Drawing in its various applications, and especially the industrial.

Literæ Humaniores.—1. Ethics. 2. Sociology.

Law.—1. Law (in general). 2. Organisation and description of contemporary institutions and customs, and especially of the constitution of the family.

Mathematics.—1. Applied arithmetic. 2. Elementary algebra. 3. Accoun's and book-keeping. 4. Geometry. 5. Mechanics.

Natural Science.—1. Physics and Chemistry. 2. Geology, Botany, and Mineralogy. 3. Anthropology and Psychology in connexion with pedagogy.

Medicine.—1. Physiology and elementary anatomy. 2. Hygiene and treatment of common diseases.

And, finally, a special feature is the series of practical exercises in teaching, given by the pupils, in the primary schools of the Association.

All the above studies are carried out in two terms, each extending from 1st October to 31st May, the lessons being given daily, and the school hours being from 9 to 1.

Unanimity of votes among the examiners is required in order to pass the examination, and success in the second year entitles to a certificate as teacher.

The statistics are :—

Years.	Pupils.	Certificates.
Previous to 1887 - - -	—	93
1887-88 - - - -	151	6
1888-89 - - - -	160	2
1889-90 - - - -	160	7
1890-91 - - - -	127	9
Total - - -	598	117

IV.—*Preparatory School.*

This was founded in 1885 with a view both to complete the education of girls, who, as a rule, leave school and college between 12 and 13, with only a very elementary education, and to prepare others who wish to join higher schools to receive a training as governesses. Indeed it was established to fill the void—even now existing in Spain—between elementary and professional education.

Girls must be 13 and pass an examination in elementary reading, writing, grammar, and arithmetic before the professors of the school. The number of pupils is not to exceed 40.

The tuition, which is given by a normal teacher as director, and two governesses—one a normal teacher and the other a high school mistress—comprises :—The Spanish and French

languages, arithmetic, geometry, geography, history, religion, hygiene, drawing, and needle and fancy work.

The school breaks up only during the month of July. Lessons are daily, and the school hours from 9 to 12.

The statistics are:—

Years.	Pupils.
1885-86 - - -	?
1886-87 - - -	?
1887-88 - - -	38
1888-89 - - -	50
1889-90 - - -	50
1890-91 - - -	55
1891-94 - - -	?
1894-95 - - -	40
Total - -	230

Classes.

I.—*Special Commercial Class.*

The School of Commerce, founded in 1878, for the purpose of enabling women to occupy certain commercial positions, as also to fulfil their ordinary duties, both economical and domestic, has since 1893 been converted into a special commercial class.

Applicants must be 15 years old, and have received either the secondary education given at the Association, or be teachers of the high school certified by the Normal School of Madrid.

Tuition is given by two professors with official titles and some assistant teachers. It lasts eight months—from the 1st October to 31st May, and the class hours are from 9 to 1.

The subjects are: Commercial language and literature; reading and writing of all commercial correspondence; caligraphy; office duties; French language, and French commercial correspondence; English or German language, with translations; commercial arithmetic, accounts and book-keeping; Stock Exchange operations; geography and history of commerce; physics, chemistry, geology, botany, and mineralogy applied to commerce, natural and industrial products; manufacturing centres; commercial depôts, commercial institutions of any kind, means of transport, drawing applied to commercial purposes, moral duties as well as art in connexion with commerce.

Certificates are given after examination, which requires the unanimous assent of all the professors of the school, and of the director as president.

English and German, possessed in a degree allowing the pupil to speak them fluently and to write them correctly, enable her to obtain the title of professor of commerce.

Since 1890 the pupils of the special commercial class have

been entrusted with the book-keeping of the Association, and have earned the highest approbation from the accountants of the Merchants' Union Club at Madrid, to whom the books are annually submitted.

Statistics:—

Years.	Pupils.	Titles granted.
Previous to 1887 - - -	—	126
1887–88 - - - -	74	4
1888–89 - - - -	62	10
1889–90 - - - -	62	4
1890–91 - - - -	52	12
Total - - -	250	156

II.—*Class for Librarians and Archivists.*

This is a newly created class, established only in 1894. Applicants must be 15 years old and must possess a knowledge of Spanish grammar, arithmetic, geography and history of Spain, and at least one foreign language.

The professors are two officials of the National Body of Librarians and Archivists, one of whom gives the tuition on Spanish institutions in the middle ages and in modern times, and the other on paleography, bibliography, and the arrangement of archives and libraries.

No other subjects are comprised in the tuition; the absence of Latin, and European history, and sociology being perhaps especially striking.

The term extends from 1st October to 31st May, and the lessons are given daily from 11 to 1.

III.—*Special Class for Languages.*

Though French has always been more or less included in the tuition at all the schools of the Association, and in some of them English and German or Italian also, the Association, wishing to give foreign languages the importance they deserve, created in 1884 the special classes for languages, comprising French, German, English, and Italian, which are perfected in successive terms, including pronunciation and reading, grammar, translation, composition and conversation in alternate lessons of an hour each. To join the classes, a fair knowledge only of Spanish grammar is required.

The description of the organisation of the remaining classes is not comprised in the plan of this paper.

By a Royal Order of the 23rd October 1880, the Ministro de la Gobernación (Home Secretary) decreed that the wife, daughter, or sister of any clerk in telegraph offices would be allowed to take the place of any such clerk who might be disabled, by passing an examination in reading, writing, the four simple rules of arithmetic, and manipulating the Morse apparatus; they were, however, to receive only 1*s.* a day, and their situation was by no means a permanent one, since they could be dismissed at a short notice.

The Association believing that the Spanish Administration meant by this first trial to follow the example of foreign countries and employ women in post office, telegraphic, and telephonic services under Government, created in 1881 its post office and telegraphic school; and when women already admitted were—by decree of 1st January 1882—entered on the rolls permanently and their salary increased to 625 pesetas a year, the school was fully organised (1883).

Subsequently, Señor Romero Robledo, being Home Secretary, by decree of the 21st July 1884, extended to any widow or spinster the small advantages of the decree of 1880 and the first 17 temporary auxiliaries under this decree were prepared at the school of the Association. But the Spanish Government has not since then shown any great interest in following up this step, or in improving the economical condition of women clerks in post and telegraph offices, and the Association was obliged to close the school.

In fact, the entire Association is now in a very critical condition. Supported at its commencement by the Government, the Municipality and the County Council of Madrid, the Merchants' Union Club, besides four railway companies and several private individuals, it had not only been able to increase its schools, as before mentioned, but to provide buildings for itself. But the subsidy from the Government, which had been stopped during two different administrations in 1884–85 and 1894–95, has now been openly opposed by the premier.

The name of Señor Don Manuel Ruiz de Quevedo should be specially mentioned, who, notwithstanding his 80 years, is honourably fighting for his Association—as its President—the battle of enlightenment and toleration against fanaticism.

B. Barcelona.—On the 28th October 1892 the *Barcelona Economic Society of Friends of the Country*, at the suggestion of its president Señor Don Juan Bantista Orriols, founded the Escuela de Institutrices, y otras Carreras para la Mujer (school for governesses and other professions for women) under its own patronage. The object of the founders was to give young ladies of the upper classes an opportunity of acquiring a higher education similar to that received in other European countries, and which they could not obtain in private schools or colleges.

The pupils must be at least 14 years of age.

The schools are kept up—(*a*) by the yearly subscription allowed from the said society; (*b*) by official and private contributions either in cash or otherwise; (*c*) by matriculation and examination fees, as well as those paid for titles and certificates; (*d*) by any sum contributed by non-student lady-hearers. The teachers were to give gratuitous tuition until such time as the funds would allow them a proper remuneration.

The schools give certificates for governesses and teachers, experts and lady-professors of commerce, and assistant teachers in all branches of their tuition, and the *Sociedad Económica Barcelonesa de Amigos del Pais* is endeavouring to obtain from the Government a recognition of their titles, the same as those issued by the Government for similar purposes.

The schools comprise three sections: TEACHERS' TRAINING SCHOOL, COMMERCIAL SCHOOL, and TECHNICAL DRAWING SCHOOL, besides several CLASSES for special tuition in shorthand, drawing and painting, sculpture, astronomy, meteorology, photography, and cutting-out and dressmaking.

The tuition at the Teachers' Training School is given in four courses, of a year each, there being in each year three months' vacation. The first course is devoted to a preparatory course, comprising the usual requirements, *i.e.*, advanced grammar, arithmetic, elementary geometry, geography, history of Spain, sacred history, religion, and caligraphy.

The subjects for the other three courses are:—

1st course.—General knowledge of architectural style, and of decorative art, geography, elementary literature, advanced arithmetic and geometry; elementary anatomy, zoology, and anthropology; French, English, German, or Italian (at pleasure); sacred history and religion, gymnastics (practice).

2nd course.—Advanced literature (Spanish classics), South American writers, physics, elementary botany (especially gardening), general history, history of Spain; advanced French, English, German, or Italian; architectural style in connexion with history, domestic hygiene, religion and sacred history, gymnastics (theory and practice).

3rd course.—Elementary chemistry, elementary mineralogy and geology; French, English, German, or Italian literature; painting and sculpture in connexion with history, elementary statistics and demography, pedagogy, domestic economy and social etiquette, religion and sacred history.

The programme, though not so extensive as that at the School for Women Teachers at Madrid, has perhaps a more practical tendency, or at least is more adapted to the Catalan character.

The Section of Commerce comprises also four terms, the subjects for the preparatory one being the same as those at the

School for Teachers. The subjects for the other three terms are as follows:—

1st.—Commercial arithmetic, commercial geography and statistics, French, caligraphy.

2nd.—Book-keeping, political economy, law relating to commercial and industrial purposes, French, English.

3rd.—Accounts, knowledge of natural and manufactured products being objects of trade, English.

This programme is far less extensive than the corresponding one at the Association in Madrid, and is deprived of any ornamental subjects, being highly practical, as the business-like Catalan always is.

Technical Drawing.—A preliminary tuition, as before, is required, after which two terms of special studies follow. The subjects are:—

1st year.—Arithmetic and elementary geometry, caligraphy applied to industry and engineering, linear drawing.

2nd year.—Ornamental handwriting for plans and drawings, elementary topography, geometry and elementary trigonometry, linear drawing applied to land and building purposes, and topographic drawing.

The fact is worth mentioning that, as a rule, there are no books prescribed for the study of the subjects, and that the young ladies have to study from their own notes taken at the lectures.

Examination in French includes a *vivâ voce* exercise in French.

The statistics from 1892, the year of foundation, to 1897 are:—

1892-93.	1893-94.	1894-95.	1895-96.	1896-97.	Total.
31	76	100	84	73	364 pupils.

or an average of 72 pupils a year. The total number of matriculations in subjects has been 415, out of which 225 were excellent, and five failed, the excellents showing yearly an increase (15, 51, 76, and 85 respectively) in the first four years. In 1895-96 certificates began to be given (three for teachers and three for assistant teachers of commerce).

It may be seen by the preceding synopsis that the success on the part of pupils and teachers has been most remarkable, but, in spite of that, and contrary to the hopes raised by the increase of pupils during the first three years, the matriculation has fallen for the last two terms, being at present below that of the second year of the existence of the schools. On the other hand, the cash in the possession of the schools' board

has never been sufficient to remunerate the efforts of the professors.

Now, if we put together the practical results of the Association at Madrid and those of the School for Governesses at Barcelona, we shall find that, undoubtedly, the attempts of individuals and associations in favour of the education of women in Spain have not been received with the favour they deserve.

Though some of the statements in this paper may seem discouraging to those who compare the education of women in Spain with that of women in some other countries, on looking back one cannot but recognise the progress made by the Spanish nation. The continuance of wars in the country, one of which lasted seven centuries, day after day, together with a rivalry between the different kingdoms then in existence, the establishment of the Inquisition, the discovery of America and its wars, the wars caused by the Reformation, and—to speak only of the present century—the Peninsular War, which disturbed the whole country, the re-establishment of the Inquisition, the separation of our South American colonies, a minority, three civil wars, daily *pronunciamientos*, a monarchy changed into a republic, a young republic swallowed up by an old monarchy, are by no means events favourable to the quiet work of education in general, and still less so to that of women. Nevertheless, we must consider that much has been done—especially by our generation—for the future of Spanish women, when we see the Spain of the present day whose infants' schools are placed in the hands of women teachers, these being trained for the purpose in normal schools managed by female teachers, and whose Institutos and Universities are now open to women, whilst private associations, with the help of public opinion, are fighting, for women's sake, the last battle against ignorance and prejudice.

FERNANDO DE ARTEAGA Y PEREIRA,
Taylorian Teacher of Spanish in the
University of Oxford.

March 10, 1897.

The National Bureau of Education in the United States.

Analysis.

The origin of the National Bureau of Education.
The Bureau as a permanent body for recording educational progress and for comparative researches.
Gradual extension of its scope.
Advantages resulting from its centralised character.
The importance of education as an element in national statistics.
The need for wide comparative treatment of collected information.
The demand for a continuous record of educational provision in all grades.
The inclusion of private as well as public agencies within the scope of inquiries.
Description of the bureau itself.
The library and museum.
The ordinary work of the bureau.
Its inquiries into special educational questions.
Its sources of information.
The Bureau as a central office in a decentralised system.
Its functions as a centre of educational information and counsel.

Appendix.

I.—An example of its annual reports.
II.—An official statement of the original objects of the Bureau.

Every student of education is under a debt of gratitude to the United States Government for the work of the National Bureau of Education of the United States. Its volumes, published under the direction of Commissioner W. T. Harris, have probably done more than any other single agency to encourage the comparative study of the science and art of education and of the various systems of educational administration now in force in the different countries of the world.

Decentralised system of education.

Education in America is left entirely in the hands of each individual State; the Federal Government exercises no control whatever, except in the scientific military training of the Army and Navy. Thus the functions of the Central Bureau of Education can, in no sense, be regarded as analogous to those which are exercised by the Education Department in England. It is therefore interesting to observe the purposes which the American Bureau of Education fulfils in a system which, from the Federal point of view, is so completely decentralised.

Measure of the need for educational provision.

It follows as a natural consequence from the complete absence of central control over education in the United States that the systems of education adopted by the different States vary very considerably. Until 1867, no idea of co-ordination, or even comparison, appears to have been formulated. Indeed, the actual condition of education in the country as a whole was not specifically noticed by the Federal Government until the year 1840, when it was included, for the first time, in the census returns. Upon this subject Dr. Warren, the clerk of the Education

Bureau, says*:—"The serious exhibition of the census of "1860, published in 1862–66, and the evident effects of the "great war on the morals, intelligence and prospects of the country, alarmed all thinking men." It was this which first compelled the serious attention of the nation to the necessity for a general improvement in the provision of education throughout all the States of the Union. It had become clear that the whole condition of the population had been disastrously affected by the war; "all the educating forces in the Union had been "weakened, perverted, or destroyed;"† and urgent new needs had arisen for improving the provision of education, both primary and secondary, and also for bringing it to bear upon an extended portion of the population. To gauge the extent of this need, and to suggest means for meeting it, educators political economists and statesmen felt the necessity of having some central agency, by which the general educational statistics of the country could be collected, preserved, condensed and properly arranged.

Original objects of the Bureau.

To this end the Bureau of Education was established by the Act of March 2nd, 1867:—

". . . . . for the purpose of (1) collecting such statistics of facts as shall show the condition and progress of education in the several States and territories; and (2) diffusing such information respecting the organisation and management of school systems and methods of teaching, as shall aid the people of the United States in the establishment and maintenance of efficient school systems and otherwise promote the cause of education."

The Bureau was, in fact, established from causes and for purposes very similar to those which gave rise to the Royal Commissions that have been appointed from time to time in England. It was to inquire into special educational questions and emergencies, to obtain opinions and suggestions from experts for dealing with the difficulties, to collect accounts of the methods by which other countries have dealt with the same, and to make authoritative recommendations as to the best means to be adopted for making effectual provision for future needs. And these functions were not considered to be a matter of temporary emergency; but the whole body of educational information was to be maintained up to date, and available for the innumerable uses for which it is constantly required by the statesman as well as the educational reformer.

A permanent means of recording educational provision.

Thus in 1870 we find the then Commissioner of the Bureau writes as follows in his official Report:—

"Rarely has anyone looked over the entire field and taken a view so comprehensive as to embrace the opportunities of education in all sections, in the country as well as in the city, over all institutions both public and private, for elementary, secondary, and superior or technical education; or counted the whole educable population; or determined how many are unreached even by rudimentary instruction, and how very limited is the number who have any thorough secondary or superior culture. They can see only in part. No report has ever

* Page 7 of his pamphlet, published in 1883, dealing with the functions of the Bureau, from which much useful material has been obtained and embodied in this memorandum.

† Ibid.

grouped these facts together. Our own statesmen are without an adequate knowledge of them. . . . . Shall not the nation at least so group together the facts and statistics that its own officers may know how this work proceeds; and that our ministers and other representatives abroad may be able to speak intelligently in answer to inquiries for information on the subject?"*

When the bureau was once fairly established, Mr. Eaton, the first Commissioner for Education, gave himself assiduously to the organising of this great scheme, and the response to his efforts was both immediate and extensive. He soon found that the work developed by the scheme was bound to increase enormously, and that every step of successful extension involved a still further increase of scope, and consequent increase of staff; but the bureau speedily justified this expansion, and proved it to be a work of national necessity.

Thus the Report of 1870, says:—

"The number and variety of applications made to this office for reports, documents, statistics, and educational information of every kind, coming from every section of our country and from foreign countries, would convince the most sceptical that there is an urgent demand for some such centre of information."

Advantage of being a centra authority.

With regard to its centralised character, which was a new feature in American educational organisation, the Commissioner writes in 1871:—

"The work of this office in collecting and tabulating educational statistics reveals at once its great necessity to the educators of the country and demonstrates the superiority of the facilities of a national over any local office, in prosecuting these inquiries; from the following considerations—

"*First*, its removal from local prejudice and excitement. *Second*, its treatment of education in its generalisations, like other great material interests, as patents, agriculture, coast survey, meteorology, &c. . . . . *Fifth*, without any exercise of authority it brings to the minds of all educators, as they are shaping the institutions and customs of education and moulding the character of future citizens, their relation to the National Government. . . . . *Seventh*, from the collection of facts from a vast variety of sources, great general principles may be educed, vitally affecting every locality."

Education an important element in national statistics.

Again, the more fundamental question as to whether it is, after all, the duty of the State to collect and disseminate information on education, was met by the consideration that, as a matter of fact, the State already recognises a similar obligation in regard to many other conditions of the social life, as is shown by the returns of the Board of Trade, the Agricultural Department, the Survey Department, the Registrar-General, &c., &c. So that, in the matter of the *educational* condition of the people, on which in large measure the welfare of a nation depends, it has clearly become of the highest importance to possess the

* Report for 1870, p. 31.

fullest and most recent information, and every possible facility and suggestion for raising its character and standards.

Thus the Report of 1872, says:—

"The supremacy of nations has long been determined by their power to win in the shock of battle. All efforts to ascertain national statistics were, therefore, formerly determined by this view. They counted only the material of war. But if the supremacy of nations is to be determined by any other test, the inquiry in statistics must be turned in that direction. And in proportion as nations have advanced in civilisation, it will be seen that they have been taking into the account of their strength those facts and conditions which test intellectual power, moral power, commercial, and industrial power. Thus the conviction grew that more frequent observations and a summary of educational facts as occurring throughout the country, were absolutely necessary."

Need for wide comparative treatment of collected information.

Nor would it be an adequate presentment of the case, to produce mere tabular information of existing educational provisions, or statistics showing the extent to which these are used. To be of any real value, the reports must deal with the genesis and evolution of the educational conditions. The historic method of treatment will alone bring out the true inwardness of existing methods and institutions; while a wide application of the comparative method will alone demonstrate the needs, possibilities, and proper direction of real improvement.

This need for a scientific treatment of the subject was fully recognised by the Commissioner in 1871, when he appeals in his report for a thoroughly intelligent staff for the Bureau:—

"If the work of this office in collecting and disseminating facts upon educational subjects is to be carried to its highest success, . . . if its material is to be as trustworthy, as full of the latest information, and as carefully prepared as the educators of the country have a right to demand, the character and number of the Commissioner's assistants should be adequate to a subdivision of the vast work in hand. It will be noted that mere clerical ability will not suffice here; there must be power for wise and discreet action and great familiarity with current educational facts. A vast range of reports must be constantly in view in regard to common free schools and private schools, for elementary instruction; to academies and high schools, for secondary training; and to colleges and every variety of professional schools, for superior instruction."

Fortunately, the very evident usefulness of the results achieved by the bureau soon sufficed to obtain for the Commissioner some of the increased help that he needed, and he was thus enabled to develope the system to a very high degree of utility.

Education must be considered in all its grades.

Thus the National Bureau of Education of the United States makes it possible for her statesmen to gauge the educational condition of the people, and continuously to follow its development in all its branches.

The statesman in America is in this way enabled to judge year by year to what extent his people are receding or advancing

in the educational race; to what extent their capacities for mechanical invention and commercial ingenuity, their talents for trade developments and industrial improvements, are being diligently fostered, or in what directions they specially need further attention; while it is recognised that the higher education of the many and the highest education of the few call for the most anxious attention on the part of the State, as surely as does the elementary education of the masses, whose claims have always, from the nature of the case, met with a more ready and complete recognition at the hands of the legislature.

The manner in which the National Bureau fulfils these varied and important functions is of considerable interest; and its operations have been followed by a high measure of success. M. Buisson, a leading educational expert in France, late Director of Primary Instruction in the French Ministry of Education, wrote in 1870:—

"The National Education Bureau at Washington began, a few years ago, the organisation of school statistics for the whole extent of the United States; and if one seeks to-day to form an idea of the *total results of instruction*, there is no great country of Europe which forms so complete an exhibit of its educational institutions."

Private as well as public agencies must be duly considered.

And it is a striking and most praiseworthy feature of its work that its review of the educational provision of the country is rendered, in a true sense, complete, from the fact that all private and voluntary (as well as public) educational machinery, is included in its purview. Thus the following words of the chief clerk of the Bureau are admirably fulfilled in the daily work of the bureau:—

"The chief duty of the bureau of Education, under the law, is to act as an educational exchange. Exercising, and seeking to exercise, no control whatever over its thousands of correspondents, the office occupies a position, as recipient of voluntary information, which is unique. European ministries require paid subordinates to furnish the information needed for the compilation of their official reports; but the great body of intelligent educators of this country gratuitously furnish a mass of information concerning their work, which in character and extent is believed to surpass what is brought together anywhere else."

* * * * *

Description of the Bureau.

It may, perhaps, help to a clear comprehension of the work and scope of the American Bureau if a short description is given of its present establishment. It occupies a four-storey building, with about six rooms on each floor. In the basement are stored the documents published and distributed by the bureau. There is also a laboratory for the chemical analysis of air and gases in school buildings, and similar investigations, besides various other necessary offices. On the first and second floors are accommodated the large clerical staff, the statistical compilers, and the Commissioner. The third floor contains the library, and the fourth the educational museum.

The Library and Museum.

The library sets apart two rooms for books and pamphlets relating to education in foreign countries, and four for the rest of the library belonging to the office, including duplicates suitable for exchange with other collections. The foreign side of the library is rich in works both on the theory of education and on its past and present condition in all parts of the world. These reports come in with little other expense to the bureau than the exchange of its own publications with the various offices and institutions from which they are received. Many foreign journals are taken, as well as American publications, so that the more fugitive literature both of European and American education is adequately represented, and many valuable facts, statistics, and clues are obtained.

The museum is in continual process of accumulating fresh material, its object being to illustrate the development of educational apparatus of every description. It is also proposed, when practicable, to select from the material accumulated here, loan collections for use in teachers' institutes, normal schools, &c., &c., throughout the country.

* * * * *

Information collected upon special educational questions of the day.

The correspondence of the office deals with almost all the countries of the world, as well as every part of the United States. Communications are maintained with schools, school authorities, universities, private educationalists and every department of educational activity. The information sought and disseminated is of every grade of importance and of every description of character. The following are some of the numerous special subjects that are dealt with from time to time; the various compulsory school laws; facts and arguments bearing on co-education of the sexes in schools and in colleges; instruction for deaf mutes; organisation and management of technical schools; hygiene in schools and colleges; the early history of public instruction at home and abroad; the state of primary education in foreign countries, and also of secondary education; methods of military education in Europe; needlework teaching in Germany and in Holland; agricultural instruction in Europe, &c., &c.

General subjects of inquiry.

There still remains to be considered the great publications-section of the bureau. Its objects, under the law, are the study of school systems elsewhere prevalent, the collection of useful suggestions from foreign educational reports and journals, and the examination of the systems of training in the various institutions for primary and secondary education of all civilised countries; in order that whatever is peculiar or excellent in each may be collected with a view to the information and guidance of American educators in their work.

Annual reports.

All this information is presented by the bureau in annual reports, which give abstract reports on the condition of the various classes of instruction (such as primary, secondary, superior, professional and special) in America, with lists and statistics of all noticeable institutions and a general or summarised

view over the whole educational field. To these are added occasional circulars of information on various subjects, of which 55 have been published since 1870; besides special reports on topics of particular importance, and smaller publications on topics of minor importance.*

The chief part of the contents of these annual reports is contributed by the paid members of the personal staff of the bureau who work up official or other papers and statistics bearing on the various subjects, and also from time to time visit foreign countries for the purpose of special investigations.

Sources of information.

Contributions are also solicited from educational experts at home and abroad, and printed in the reports. And it is the practice of the Commissioner of Education to commission graduates of American universities or other suitable persons who are travelling or temporarily residing in Europe to make inquiries on behalf of the bureau, and to report the results of such inquiries for subsequent publication in the Official Report. The contents of the Annual Report for 1890–91, given in the appendix below, with analysis on page 652, sufficiently indicate the methods usually employed to secure a due variety of contributions, and a representation of original authorities.

* * * * *

The functions of the central office in a decentralised system.

The functions thus fulfilled in the educational system of the United States by the Central Educational Office are manifestly of a high degree of utility; they are characteristically expressed in the following words taken from the Bureau Report for 1884:—

"Our system of education is of the people, for the people, and by the people. It is for the benefit of all children alike, and is wholly dependent both for support and control upon the will of the people, expressed either directly by the popular vote, or indirectly through legislatures, boards of control, and officials clothed with authority by these bodies. Hence the necessity for diffusing accurate and detailed information as to the condition and working of various school systems and also in respect to the best means of promoting their progress and development, not only among legislatures and public school officials, but among the people at large. And to insure the maximum utility of this twofold information, it must be as fresh as possible, that is, it must be gathered up and made available at short intervals, in general once in each year."

Its duties as a centre of educational information and counsel.

This passage excellently defines the American conception of the value of a Central Education Office as a disseminator of reliable information, both concerning existing means and needs, and also concerning the best recognised methods of improving the one and of meeting the other.

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* For examples of these subjects, see Part 2, Appendix I., page 654 below.

APPENDIX I.

Annual Reports.

As an example of the general work of the bureau, it may be useful to describe one of the later annual reports.

The Bureau Report of 1891 was in two volumes, containing some fifteen hundred pages, prefaced by an introduction by the Commissioner, calling attention to the salient features of the report. It is in three parts:—

Part I., Chapter 1.—Statistics of common school systems in the different States of the Union, dealing with average attendance, expenditure, provision of teachers, salaries, various laws of compulsory attendance, the different grades of existing schools, &c., &c.

Chapter 2.—A special Report on Secondary Education in New Zealand.

Chapter 3.—A Report on Education in France, giving the special features of the developments during 1890–91; the general progress of primary schools since the law of 1833; and a full account of the whole system of higher primary and true secondary schools.

Chapter 4.—A general view of the educational system of England and Scotland, and the special developments during 1890–91.

Chapter 5.—A special Report on the provision for Secondary and Technical Instruction in Great Britain.

Chapter 6.—The Educational System of Ireland.

Chapter 7.—Industrial and Technical Education in Central Europe.

Chapters 8–12.—Education in Russia, Japan, Italy, Korea, and Hawaii respectively.

Chapters 13–16.—Legal Education in the various civilised countries, d a bibliography thereto.

Chapter 17.—The Colleges for Agriculture and the Mechanical Arts, America.

Part II. includes a special Report on the history and condition of Public Kindergartens and Ecoles Gardiennes in several European countries; statistics of higher education generally, including university extension, &c.; reports on secondary schools in America and on professional schools and courses (medical, legal, &c., &c.); special papers on current educational questions, *e.g.*, health of children in schools, the Kindergarten system, denominational and voluntary systems, religious and moral training in schools, rural schools, vacations, hours of lessons and of recess, statistics of the mental and physical conditions of school children in certain places, &c.

Part III.—Statistical tables for every department of educational activity, from the lowest to the highest, and for every section of the population, in the United States.

Analysis of Sources of Information.

The information comprised in these reports is obtained in various ways, thus:—

(*a.*) The staff of the bureau compiled, and where necessary translated, from published returns and official documents (apparently without visiting the countries in question), the chapters on the condition of education in Great Britain, Ireland, France, Russia, and Japan, and also those on Industrial and Technical Education

in Central Europe and on Legal Education in civilised countries.

(*b.*) The papers on special subjects, included in Part II., comprise extracts from the public press of America and other countries, with summaries of articles by experts that have appeared in magazines and periodicals, and translations (by members of the bureau) of foreign reviews and pamphlets.

(*c.*) Special papers were also contributed by writers not on the staff of the bureau; *e.g.*, on Education in New Zealand by the Minister for Education in New Zealand; on Education in Korea by an ex-member of the Korean Embassy to the United States; on Education in Italy by two Italian Savants, officials of the Italian Government; on Agricultural Colleges by a professor in an American College of Agriculture; on Public Kindergarten in Europe by a State Superintendent of Schools in Indiana, U.S.A.; on Education in Alaska, by the Agent-General of Education in Alaska, &c., &c.

APPENDIX II.

Proposed objects of the Bureau.

The following extract from the memorial presented to Congress, requesting the establishment of the Central Bureau, shows clearly the purposes which it was intended to fulfil:—

"It was the unanimous opinion of the association that the interests of education would be greatly promoted by the organisation of such a bureau at the present time; that it would render needed assistance in the establishment of school systems where they do not now exist, and that it would also prove a potent means for improving and vitalising existing systems. This it could accomplish—

"1. By securing greater uniformity and accuracy in school statistics, and so interpreting them that they may be more widely available and reliable as educational tests and measures.

"2. By bringing together the results of school systems in different communities, States, and countries, and determining their comparative value.

"3. By collecting the results of all important experiments in new and special methods of school instruction and management, and making them the common property of school officers and teachers throughout the country.

"4. By diffusing among the people information respecting the school laws of the different States; the various modes of providing and disbursing school funds; the different classes of school officers and their relative duties; the qualifications required of teachers, the modes of their examination, and the agencies

provided for their special training; the best methods of classifying and grading schools, improved plans of schoolhouses, together with modes of heating and ventilation, &c.—information now obtained only by a few persons and at great expense, but which is of the highest value to all intrusted with the management of schools.

"5. By aiding communities and States in the organisation of school systems in which mischievous errors shall be avoided and vital agencies and well-tried improvements be included.

"6. By the general diffusion of correct ideas respecting the value of education as a quickener of intellectual activities, as a moral renovator, as a multiplier of industry and a consequent producer of wealth, and, finally, as the strength and shield of civil liberty.

"In the opinion of your memorialists it is not possible to measure the influence which the faithful performance of these duties by a national bureau would exert upon the cause of education throughout the country, and few persons who have not been intrusted with the management of school systems can fully realise how widespread and urgent is the demand for such assistance. Indeed, the very existence of the association which your memorialists represent is itself positive proof of a demand for a national channel of communication between the school officers of the different States.

"Millions of dollars have been thrown away in fruitless experiments for the want of it.

"Your memorialists would also submit that the assistance and encouragement of the General Government are needed to secure the adoption of school systems throughout the country. An ignorant people have no inward impulse to lead them to self-education. Just where education is most needed, there it is always least appreciated and valued. It is, indeed, a law of educational progress that its impulse and stimulus come from without. Hence it is that Adam Smith and other writers on political economy expressly except education from the operation of the general law of supply and demand. They teach, correctly, that the demand for education must be awakened by external influence and agencies.

"This law is illustrated by the fact that entire school systems, both in this and in other countries, have been lifted up, as it were, bodily by just such influences as a national bureau of education would exert upon the schools of the several States; and this, too, without its being invested with any official control of the school authorities therein. Indeed, the highest value of such a bureau would be its quickening and informing influence, rather than its authoritative and directive control. The true function of such a bureau is not to direct officially in school affairs in the States, but rather to co-operate with and assist them in the great work of establishing and maintaining systems of public instruction. All experience teaches that the nearer the responsibility of supporting and directing schools is brought to those immediately benefited by them, the greater their vital power and efficiency.

"Your memorialists beg permission to suggest one other special duty which should be intrusted to the national bureau, and which of itself will justify its creation, viz., an investigation of the

management and results of the frequent munificent grants of land made by Congress for the promotion of general and special education. It is estimated that these grants, if they had been properly managed, would now present an aggregate educational fund of about five hundred millions of dollars. If your memorialists are not misinformed, Congress has no official information whatever respecting the manner in which these trusts have been managed."

R. L. MORANT.

The History of the Manitoba School System and the Issues of the recent Controversy.

Analysis.

A.—*Condition of things before the Union with Canada.*
- i. History.
- ii. Population.
- iii. Education.
- iv. The Union: its terms and conditions, and the rights thereby accorded.

B.—*The Denominational Period of Public Education.* 1870–1890.
- 1-10. Provisions of the Bill of 1870.
- 11-24. Later amendments by subsequent Bills.

The Working of this System: gradual appearance of difficulties and growth of opposition.
- i-iv. Causes thereof.

C.—*The Undenominational Period:* under the Acts of 1890.
- 1-18. Provisions of these Acts.

Objections raised against these Acts, and struggle for their repeal.

D.—Action of the Province, and of the Dominion, and subsequent developments.

Appendix.

I.—Summary of arguments for and against the Separate Schools System.
- i.-vii. Catholic. 1-6. Majority.

II.—Dated summary of litigation.

III.—Details of the proposed Compromise or Amendments, under the Laurier-Greenway settlement.

The Manitoba School System.

The recent educational controversy in Manitoba was brought about through the struggle of the Catholic minority to recover their own "separate" schools. They were opposed by a strong majority—87 per cent.—of the population, who in 1890 secured the repeal of the earlier denominational system, in favour of a strictly undenominational system.

The educational history of Manitoba falls naturally into three periods:—

A. Before the union with Canada, during which time there was no public system of education.

B. The denominational period, from 1870–1890.

C. The undenominational period, brought about by the Acts of 1890, which caused the present struggle, and which are still in force.

A.—*Before the Union.*

i. History. The history of the settlement of the province, and of the earlier conditions of education, throws considerable light on the

causes of the recent difficulty. Long before the existence of the Dominion of Canada, the country now known as the province of Manitoba was an agricultural settlement peopled by emigrants from Scotland and Ireland under Lord Selkirk in 1811 and subsequent years. From time to time various trading companies with employés of varied nationalities also acquired extensive interests over the north-west portion of America. Eventually the Hudson's Bay Company gained possession and jurisdiction over the whole territory in 1821. The country was thus brought under similar conditions to those of India under the East India Company, being in the hands of a governor and directors in London, who appointed a deputy governor with full powers on the spot, assisted subsequently by a council. But the direction of affairs in the particular district of Winnipeg and the Red River was left largely in the hands of a separate local corporation, known as the governor and council of Assinoboia, and formally constituted in 1835 as the legislative authority, the governor being appointed by the Company, while the council was selected from men of local importance who were given commissions under the Company.

ii. Population.

During this period the population was slowly increased by the advent of new immigrants, not only from Great Britain and Ireland, but also from the neighbouring provinces of Ontario and Quebec, including many French-speaking peoples, and from Scandinavia, Russia, and elsewhere. The total had risen from some 5,000 in 1835 to 12,000 in 1869. At the latter date it was composed of about 1,000 whites, some 5,000 Scotch and Irish half-breeds, and about 6,000 French half-breeds (métis). Both Protestant and Catholic Churches were represented in each of these categories, but the Catholics chiefly amongst the last. The people of different origins were at this time more or less segregated in different localities, thus causing somewhat marked local differentiations both of language and of religion, a point of importance in the present consideration.

iii. Education.

Throughout this period such education as existed was entirely in the hands of the religious bodies. "No public provision for "schools was made by the Government (*i.e.*, the Governor and "Council of Assinoboia). Each church had by its side a school "under the control of the missionary. There was no system of "taxation in vogue; the school was sustained by private "subscription, or by grants from the missionary societies."* . . . "In some cases the clergymen, unable to get assistance, "voluntarily undertook the laborious duties of school teachers, "without remuneration, in addition to their proper work."† . . . But "education was in a much better condition than "the isolation and scattered state of the population would have "led one to expect. In 1857 there were 17 schools in the "settlements, generally under the supervision of the clergy of

* Canadian Economics, 1884, p. 298. Rev. George Bryce.
† Manitoba and the Great North-West, 1883, p. 528.

" the Roman Catholic or Episcopalian or Presbyterian bodies."* Occasionally special gifts of money were made by the Council or the Company to particularly needy missions for keeping up a school in difficulties; but it is admitted on both sides of the present controversy that before the Union "schools were neither " supported by grants from public funds nor controlled in any " way by public officials."†

iv. The Union. After 34 years under this Company's *régime*, the heterogeneous population had gradually become more united; a feeling of nationalism had arisen, and a public opinion was developed, as became at once apparent when the question of federation with the neighbouring provinces of the Dominion of Canada was mooted. At length, in 1869, it was decided by the Imperial Government to form the district of the Red River into a regular province. The rights of the Hudson's Bay Company were accordingly bought out by the Dominion, and by the Act of 1870 the "Province of Manitoba" was constituted under a Lieutenant-Governor, with an Executive Council of five Ministers, who were chosen by, and responsible to, a locally elected provincial Legislature of 35 members. The province is now divided into local municipalities, each with a reeve and council of five members; while cities and towns have a municipal government under a mayor and corporation.

But this transference of ownership by purchase provoked violent opposition at first amongst some of the population, who were jealous for the existence of their various existing privileges.‡ And, as the Imperial Government refused to sanction any annexation against the will of the inhabitants, the Dominion authorities were compelled to negotiate with the Manitobans for an amicable settlement, and to promise the statutory retention of certain "rights and privileges," which had been drawn up in a Bill of Right and presented to the Dominion Government by regularly constituted delegates from Manitoba. Some doubts have been recently thrown upon some of the privileges therein demanded: *e.g.*, whether "separate schools" were definitely named or not; but in any case a proclamation of the Governor-General is extant, which says: "By Her Majesty's authority I " do hereby assure you that on the union with Canada your " civil and religious rights and privileges will be respected, your " property secured to you, and that your country will be " governed, as in the past, under British laws, and in the spirit " of British justice."§ And the Archbishop of St. Boniface quotes the following words from a letter addressed to him at that date by the Governor-General :—" By Her Majesty's promise

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* Intellectual Development of Canada, p. 35.

† Mr. Macarthy in Dominion Parliament, Hansard, p. 4507.

‡ It is stated that this opposition was almost confined to the Fren with a few American whites; and that the so-called delegates of Scotch whites and half-breeds simply took part by compu to the little settlement.

§ Sessional Papers, 33a, p. 125.

" the people may rely that respect and attention will be extended " to the different religious persuasions."* Such rights as were guaranteed were provided for under the Manitoba Act of 1870. This Act was passed to make certain modifications (rendered necessary by the special circumstances of Manitoba) in the application of the more general British North America Act of 1867, which would otherwise have regulated in every particular the terms of this as of every other new admission of a province into the Dominion.

As the recent controversy, and especially the litigation in the courts has turned largely upon the terms of these two Acts, and the rights therein accorded, it is important that they should be clearly comprehended. The points specially bearing on education are contained in § 22 of the Manitoba Act (modifying § 93 of the British North America Act). It is enacted that *the right of dealing with educational matters shall rest exclusively with the Manitoban Provincial Legislature*, not with the Dominion Government, but there are three important provisoes: "(1.) Nothing " in any such laws shall prejudicially affect any right or privilege " with respect to denominational schools which any class of " persons have by law or practice† in the province at the union. " (2.) An appeal shall lie to the Governor-General in Council " from any act or decision of the legislature of the province or of " any provincial authority, affecting any right or privilege of the " Protestant or Roman Catholic minority of the Queen's subjects " in relation to education. (3.) In case any such provincial law " as from time to time seems to the Governor-General in Council " requisite for the due execution of the provisions of this section " is not made, or in case any decision of the Governor-General in " Council on any appeal under this section is not duly executed " by the proper provincial authority in that behalf, then and in " every such case and as far only as the circumstances of each " case require, *the Parliament of Canada may*‡ *make remedial* " *laws* for the due execution of the provisions of this section " and of any decision of the Governor-General in Council under " this section."§

The reason for this statutory safeguarding of the rights and privileges of religious minorities is seen in the fact that in Lower Canada and in Upper Canada—for whose benefit the British North America Act was originally framed—the Protestant minority in the one case and the Catholic in the other possessed at the time

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* Sessional Papers, 33a, p. 125.

† These two words do not occur in the British North America Act. They were inserted in the Manitoba Act, because no right could exist *by law* in Manitoba, before the Union, since no State-recognised schools yet existed; but in *practice* there were certain educational privileges existing which needed safeguarding.

‡ [illegible] must" has been one of the most hotly debated [illegible] the Governor-General and the Dominion [illegible]y exercise their discretion and may [illegible]*dient for the general good.*

§ [illegible] America Act, 1871, 34 & 35 Vict.

of the union their own "separate" public schools, and desired a guarantee of their continuance under the union. And though in Manitoba no such separate schools in the sense of State-aided schools yet existed, still each religious party possessed its own schools independently; and both Catholics and Protestants alike wished at the time to prevent this privilege from ever being at the mercy of any hostile religious majority that might arise through subsequent changes in the population;—an eventuality which has, in fact, arisen and has caused the present struggle.

Such, then, was the condition of educational affairs when the province of Manitoba entered upon her career of public schools legislation, possessing a free hand to develop her own system subject only to the rarely exercised veto of the Central Government, and to the above-named proviso that no minority rights be injured; any such injury possibly incurring the interference of the Parliament of Canada.

B.—*Legislation of* 1871–89.

The first important statute was the Manitoba Schools Act of 1871. The following were its main features:—

1. The whole education of the province was placed under a central board of education, appointed by the Governor-General in Council.

2. This board was composed of two sections, one Protestant, the other Catholic, equal in number. One-third of each section retired every year, and the Governor appointed their successors.

3. To this board was handed over the grant made for education every year by the provincial legislature to be divided equally between the two sections.

4. Each section of the board had exclusive and independent control over its own schools,* made its own regulations, and appointed and supervised its own inspectors, conducted the licensing and examination of its own body of teachers, and selected its own books for school use, especially on religious subjects.

5. For the actual management of schools, the whole province was divided up into school districts, in each of which the inhabitants elected a board of trustees, with duties similar to those of our school managers; a certain number of the trustees retired every year, and others were elected. These schools districts were 24 in number, corresponding to the electoral divisions.

6. As the populations was then more or less definitely segregated in certain areas corresponding with their differences of religious beliefs, it was arranged that 12 of these school districts, "comprising mainly a Catholic population,"† should be Catholic, under the Catholic section of the central board, and 12 in the same way Protestant.

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* Their only *joint* function was to make regulations for registering and reporting the daily attendance of scholars.

† Sessional Papers, 33a, p. 7.

7. Each board of trustees had authority, in its own district, to make all arrangements for providing and managing schools, appointing teachers, building, repairing, and furnishing school premises, and controlling the general working and expenditure.

8. To meet expenses not covered by the fees and the central grant, the inhabitants of each school district, assembled at an annual meeting, decided in what manner funds should be raised. One of the modes prescribed was an assessment and rate upon the property of the school district, the amount to be fixed by the Board of Trustees, but collected from the people and paid over to the trustees by the municipal authorities.*

9. In the event of assessment there was no provision for exemption except in the case of the father of a child actually attending a public school—a Protestant in a Catholic school district or a Catholic in a Protestant—who was exempt from contributing to a school not of his own faith in the event of his sending the child to the school of the nearest district of the other section, and contributing to it an amount equal to what he would have paid if he had belonged to that district.

10. But there could not be more than one school in any one given district, except by the special sanction of that section of the central authority to which the district originally belonged.

* * * * *

Various modifications were introduced in subsequent years, which are worth noticing in detail, as showing the persistent and increasing effort towards a more thorough application of the denominational system. As the Protestant population was increasing far more rapidly than the Catholic, this tendency appeared to redound chiefly to the benefit of the Protestants. Thus:—

11. By the Act of 1873 the legislative grant was no longer to be equally divided between the Catholic and Protestant sections,† but proportionally to the total average attendance at all the schools under each section respectively during the preceding year.

12. This was again altered in 1875 and the grant was made proportional to the total number of children of school age,‡ whether Protestant or Catholic, residing in all the school districts of each section respectively.

13. In the same year a change was also made in the composition of the Central Board which, to correspond with the great increase of Protestant relatively to Catholic immigration, was now fixed at the ratio of 12 Protestants to 9 Catholics.§

14. It was further enacted in 1876 that the establishment or existence of a school district belonging to one section of the Board should not prevent the establishment *in that same place* of a school district of the other section.‖

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* Canadian Economics, p. 302.

† *Cf.* B. 3 above.

‡ 6–16 in towns; 5–16 in rural districts.

§ *Cf.* B. 2 above.

‖ *Cf.* B. 9 and 10 above.

15. Protestant and Catholic districts could, in fact, either co-exist or overlap; thus making it much easier than before for a man to send his child to a school under his own section of the board and so of his own faith.

16. This was the more necessary because school attendance was in this same year made compulsory in towns on all children, from 7 to 12 years old.

17. And the trustees were now empowered of their own authority to levy a rate on *all* the inhabitants of a district for school expenses.*

18. But the incidence of this rate was restricted in the following year by the Act of 1877, which expressly enacted that in no case shall a Protestant ratepayer be obliged to pay towards a Catholic school, nor a Catholic ratepayer towards a Protestant one.†

* * * * *

Further modifications were introduced from 1881 to 1884, but always in the direction of facilitating denominational privileges, not only as between Catholics and Protestants, but even as between different sects of the Protestants, who gradually formed distinct school districts of their own, under the one Protestant section of the Central Board.

19. In 1881 it was provided that a school could be opened, or a school district called into existence, *anywhere*, if there were ten children of school age residing within three miles of the proposed school site: it being only necessary for five resident heads of families to petition the municipal council under which they resided, to form a district; and in case of difficulty, an appeal lay to that section of the Central Board under whose jurisdiction the said five residents would belong.

20. In 1884 largely increased powers were given to the trustees for issuing debentures and borrowing money for building and improving their schools.

21. Denominational normal colleges, assisted by the rates and by provincial grants, were authorised to be established by *each* section of the Board independently, in connexion with the denominational colleges of Winnipeg, and St. Boniface respectively.

22. In 1886 the law stood that in municipalities including different school districts, rates were to be fixed by the district to which the majority of the residents belonged; but the municipality were to hand over to the district of the minority, a share of the total, proportionate to the number of children in attendance in the minority's schools.‡

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* *Cf.* B. 8 above.

† *Vide* memorandum prepared by the Catholic Superintendent of Education, for the Colonial Exhibition, 1886. Mr. McCarthy, representing the Manitoba Government, stated before the Privy Council in Ottawa, March 5, 1895: "A man who was "neither a Protestant nor a Catholic was exempt from taxation." But Principal Grant, who has been recently making an exhaustive inquiry into the Manitoba school question, says that this statement is quite inaccurate; and that there was not any arrangement to that effect.

‡ *Vide* Catholic Superintendent's Report, 1886.

23. It was also laid down that no educational buildings or institutions were to be rated or taxed for school purposes.

24. And that when two or more persons were sharing the interests of any taxable property, the taxes of each of them should be handed over independently to whichever school district (*i.e.*, Catholic or Protestant (each belonged, in respect of his own faith, without reference to the locality of the property.*

The special bearing of some of these details will be seen when considering hereafter the contentions of the Catholic minority in respect of their former rights and privileges.

* * * * *

The system thus minutely organised for reserving to every individual the right to have his child educated in a public school of his own faith, together with an immunity from contributing to the support of the other schools, seems to have worked for many years harmoniously.

Mr. Somerset, Superintendent of Education for the Protestant section of the Board, wrote officially in 1886: "The history of "the educational system of this province since its establishment "in 1871 to the present time, affords very satisfactory evidence "of the fulfilment of those conditions of usefulness and adaptation "to the wants of the people, and justifies us in regarding its "operation in the past with satisfaction. It is gratifying to all "lovers of good citizenship as well as of educational progress to "note that from the organisation of this system in 1871, at "which period the Protestant schools numbered 16, and the "Catholic 17, up to the present time,† there has been an almost "entire absence of the friction and disagreement that have "marked the progress of education in some of the sister pro-"vinces."

While Mr. Macoun, the Dominion Government explorer of the North-West, wrote in 1883‡: "Perhaps the most satisfactory "chapter in the history of Manitoba is its peaceful and har-"monious educational development. In every other province of "the Dominion long and angry wars have been waged over the "common schools. Well may the province that has no history "in this respect be called happy." And this was written at a time when there were many varieties of religious beliefs in the province, the respective churches being represented in the following proportions:—Episcopalians 14, Presbyterians 14, Roman Catholics 13, Methodists 2, Lutherans and Mennonites 7, Baptists and Congregationalists 2; or, following the two divisions of the Board of Education, Catholics 13, non-Catholics 46.

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* This and some of the other methods of bringing about what is sometimes called allocation of rates, for the purposes of maintaining a public system of denominational schools, may be seen working in some of the cantons in Switzerland, especially St. Gallen.

† *i.e.*, 1886, at which date Protestant schools (according to another report) were 426 in number and Catholics 53.

‡ Manitoba and the Great North-West, p. 533.

And Dr. Morrison writes,* "Throughout all these years, from "1871–1888, no complaint was ever made with the working "of the separate school system. The people, Protestant and "Catholic alike, were perfectly contented with the school system "as it then existed."

What, then, were the considerations that afterwards caused so great a change in the feelings of the province on this matter, and created such an agitation against Catholic schools and the whole denominational system as to bring about a revolution in the educational policy of the country in 1890, and ultimately bring the province to the verge of rebellion against the Dominion Government? †

There seem to have been four main causes in operation:—

i. The constant stream of immigration had gradually brought about a great change in the numerical proportion of Catholics to Protestants in the population. While in 1871 they were in almost equal proportions, in 20 years the ratio had altered to that of 33 Protestants to 5 Catholics. And while in 1872 the Catholic schools had numbered 18 and the Protestant 17 (with an attendance of 824 and 1,025 scholars respectively) in 1886, after 14 years spent under precisely equal educational privileges, the Catholic schools were only 53 and the Protestant 426.‡ So that privileges that had been very naturally accorded to members of each faith when on a numerical equality with each other, had come to appear very special and noticeable privileges (especially in the light of paragraphs 18, 19, 20, 23, above) when insisted on by so small a fraction of the whole population.

ii. Moreover, it was gradually becoming apparent that the system of distinct denominational schools for each religious section of the community§ (*see* paras. 18, 19, above) was fatal to any homogeneous scheme of education, and tended to perpetuate, rather than to do away with, the many conflicting racial interests

* Quoted on p. 4588 in Hansard's Canadian Parliamentary Debates.

† *Vide* Mr. Duport's words in a speech in the Canadian Parliament, Hansard, p. 4445.

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Protestant Schools.	Catholic Schools.	—
16	17	1871
22	21	1874
122	—	1882
380	45	1883
426	53	1884

§ Nominally there were only two systems of schools, Protestant and Catholic. Yet where any particular sect was numerous enough to provide its own school, some semblance of a denominational system in the English sense arose. In most of the schools, however, under the Protestant Board, there was but little variety in the religious instruction provided. It was practically limited to simple religious exercises and the committal to memory of the Lord's Prayer, the Ten Commandments and the Apostles' Creed.

and prejudices that were prevalent in Manitoba. Thus Dr. Bryce, a member of the school board, writes*: "The problem facing "Manitoba was unique. The province was made up of people "of many nations; its speech is polyglot, the majority English-"speaking; it has 15,000 German-speaking Mennonites, some "10,000 or 12,000 French-speaking half-breeds, a considerable "number of Polish Jews, many Hungarians and Finlanders, and "a Gallic-speaking crofter settlement." Now under the later denominational privileges almost every one of these sections of the population could demand and obtain their own schools, and —more than this—if they were not numerous enough in any locality to secure their own schools, they were in many cases exempt, under paragraph 18 above, from contributing at all to the educational system of the district in which they lived. Thus, as Mr. Macarthy said when speaking before the Canadian Privy Council on behalf of the Manitoban Government,† "Here, "for instance, were 15,000 people‡ (the Mennonites) who were "demanding separate religious schools, who had never come into "the school system, and declined to come into it. There was "no power to tax, so that a man who was neither a Protestant "nor a Catholic was exempt from (educational) taxation§ . . . . "The Mennonites steadfastly refused to come into the school "system . . . . Most other foreigners were absolutely careless "about education. . . . What could patriotic Manitobans do? "They were faced with the prospect of whole masses of the "population growing up illiterate. . . . . The only hope was to "fall back on the essential rights of the province, and provide "*one public school for every locality*, and have a vigorous effort "made *to rear up a homogeneous Canadian people*." This seems to have been the keynote of the new policy.

iii. At the same time, the important question of developing one common language was a further reason for desiring a more uniform educational system for the whole province. At the time of the union of Manitoba with the Federation, when the population of the provinces was divided fairly equally between the French-speaking and English-speaking peoples, it was natural enough to have all speeches on Government matters delivered equally in French and in English, with no preference given to either. But in the later eighties this was no longer the case;‖ this need had vanished, and there was now the new danger of propagating and perpetuating a multiplicity of languages, unless

* In an article in the Canadian magazine, quoted on p. 57 of "Proceedings in the Manitoba School Case," Ottawa, 1895.

† March 5, 1895.

‡ Out of a total population of 125,000.

§ This extreme statement of the case has since been denied (*see* footnote above) and it would seem that the legislature did not contemplate any such exemption. The Mennonites, for example, were not exempt by law, but, as they lived in separate communities and were able to stand outside school districts, they were practically exempt.

‖ In 1871 the French-speaking were 41 per cent. of the whole; in 1891 they were only 15 per cent.

separate schools were abolished. For now Icelanders, French-speaking folk, Mennonites, or any other comparatively small section of the whole Manitoban population, could demand to have the public money appropriated to the support of their schools and to maintain their own language and keeping out English. While on the other hand it was the natural desire of the Provincial Legislature, in the interests of the whole province, "to do away with illiteracy among the people as a whole, and "to make the people Manitobans and Canadians, not French, "or Mennonites, or Poles."*

iv. It was also believed by the framers of the new Act of 1890, that the schools of the minority, *i.e.*, the Catholic schools, which were almost invariably French schools, were much less efficient than the schools under the other section of the board.† The latter were, in 1886, so numerous in comparison (426 : 53), that they were commonly spoken of as the National Schools. So that a desire to raise the educational standard of *every* school district involved, in their opinion, the necessity of abolishing these separate schools and making the National Schools the type for the new uniform Public Elementary Schools.

From these and similar considerations, the agitation against denominational schools gradually gathered strength in the province, till in August 1889, the policy of repeal was definitely adopted by the Government then in power, and the Public Schools Act of 1890 was passed in the following year, by 25 votes to 11, in a full house.‡

C.—*Undenominational Period.*

The Public Schools Act of 1890 and the Department of Education Act.

1. These Acts repealed all previous legislation respecting public education, abolished the Board of Education with its Catholic and Protestant sections, and put all public education and every public school under the control of a Government Department of Education. This Department is, in fact, a committee of the Provincial Executive Council§ in power for the time being; and the question of religious belief of course enters in no way into its composition.

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* Mr. Macarthy in the Dominion Parliament.

† For contentions in support of this, *vide* Appendix I. (1.), p. 682, *infra*. It is admitted that the minorities levied inconsiderable taxes to supplement the grant, and that therefore their schools were comparatively poor in staff and equipment.

‡ *Vide* the closing paragraph of this memorandum, for further details on the strength of this opinion.

§ The composition of the Executive Council varies in different provinces. In Manitoba it consists of five members:—

1. The President of Council, who is also Minister of Agriculture and Railway Commissioner.
2. The Attorney-General and Land Commissioner.
3. The Minister of Public Works.
4. The Provincial Secretary.
5. The Provincial Treasurer.

2. The Department is assisted by an Advisory Board of seven members: four appointed by the Department, two elected by the Public and High School teachers of the province, and one by the Council of the University of Manitoba. In most cases these appointments are for two years.

3. All the old school districts, Catholic and Protestant alike, and such new ones as may be established, were made subject to all provisions of this Act and under the full control of the Department and the Advisory Board.

4. It is the duty of the Department of Education to provide for the necessary formation or alteration of school districts, and to appoint both inspectors and teachers throughout the province, and to fix their salaries; while the Advisory Board determine the qualifications necessary for a teacher and appoint examiners.

5. No books may be used in public schools* nor religious exercises practised, except those ordained or sanctioned by the Advisory Board.

6. No pupils need attend the religous exercises if their parents object. It is left to the option of the locally elected trustees of the school to have them at all, and such religious exercises are in the intention of the board entirely non-sectarian.†

7. All children must attend school between the ages of 5 and 16 in the rural municipalities, and between 6 and 16 in cities; but all public schools are free.

8. The trustees of each school are elected as before, and have the same functions; two are elected for each ward of a city or town, and three for each undivided village; but they must carry out their duties in accordance with the restrictions and regulations of the Advisory Board and the Education Department.

9. As regards funds for maintaining the public schools they are derived from three sources: (*a*) proceeds of the sale of public lands originally granted for educational purposes by the Dominion Government; (*b*) an annual grant for educational purposes made by the provincial legislature; (*c*) municipal "rates for education." The first two of these are distributed impartially throughout the province by the Department for the benefit of all public schools.

10. As regards (*c*) it has been made the duty of the trustees elected in each district under the new Act to estimate the sum required in addition to (*a*) and (*b*) for defraying the school expenses of the coming year; and the municipal council of every city, town, and village is directed to levy upon *all* taxable property in their school district such a rate as will supply these necessary sums, and to collect and hand it over to the trustees twice a year.

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* *i.e.*, schools receiving any portion of public money, whether provincial grants or local rates.

† *i.e.*, to include only what may be considered matter of common agreement amongst all Christians; this being sufficiently exhibited in the books sanctioned by the board.

11. It is expressly enacted that any school not conducted according to all the provisions of the Act or the regulations of the Department and of the Advisory Board shall not be deemed a public school within the meaning of the Act, and shall not participate in any grant of money.

12. The trustees under the new Act are empowered to take over the possession of all property which had been acquired or given for public schools purposes in the past, whether those schools had been under the Catholic or the Protestant section of the board, and apply the use of it or the proceeds of it to the needs of the new public schools of that district.*

* * * * *

It is plain that this legislation of 1890 removed at once all privileges enjoyed by any denomination as such, whether Protestant or Catholic. It became impossible for parents or ratepayers or trustees to provide any religious teaching or exercises in the schools for the purpose of suiting any denomination, without forfeiting the grant.† The special object aimed at was a uniformity of system throughout the province; while an attempt was made to meet the religious difficulties of the case by providing only such a modicum of religion as should hurt no one's susceptibilities.

The Act at once aroused the strenuous opposition of many Catholics. At first they sought to get the whole Act declared null and invalid and *ultra vires*, on the ground that since it deprived them of their own denominational schools and taxed them for the support of schools which for religious reasons they could not use, it was a direct infringement of their rights and came under the category of laws prohibited by section 22. i. of the Manitoba Act.‡ A test case, known as the Barrett case, was put forward, and after various judgments and appeals in different courts§ the Judicial Committee of the Privy Council in England gave the final decision in February 1893, to the effect that since no *public* or *state-recognised* schools had existed (whether denominational or otherwise) before or at the union,‖ this Act could not be held to have contravened "any denominational school "rights or privileges existing by law or practice at the union," and that it was therefore not *ultra vires*, but valid.

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* As to compensation *vide* Appendix I., § vii., *infra*.

† Principal Grant has recently published an exhaustive Report on the Manitoba Schools, in which he points out, amongst other things, that the regulation against any special denominational religious instruction in Public Schools is successfully evaded by the Mennonites and sometimes by the Catholics, by shortening the school day, and holding religious exercises and giving their own religious instruction *after* "school hours."

Mr. Grant also says, "Outside the Catholics and Mennonites there is no special "educational difficulty in Manitoba, in spite of the formidable number of nationalities represented in its population." He mentions one little two-roomed school where "thirteen nationalities sit side by side, all being ground up into Canadians."

‡ *Vide* A. iv., *supra*.

§ *Vide* dated Abstract of Legislation given in Appendix II., *infra*.

‖ They were not established till 1871.

Meantime, many of the Catholics throughout the province had formulated their objections to the Act more fully. They now raised the point that the Acts of 1890 contravened various rights and privileges which they had enjoyed *since* the union under the legislation of 1870–86, arguing, not that the act was *ultra vires* under section 22. i. of the Manitoba Act, but that it came under section 22. ii., and gave them the right to appeal for redress to the Governor-General.*

This argument was embodied in a petition† signed by 4,267 Catholics representing some 25 per cent. of the total Catholic population of men, women, and children, and including French, Irish, and English persons. The ninth paragraph summarises their contentions thus: "The effect of these Acts " is to deprive the Catholics altogether of their separate con- " dition in regard to education; to merge their schools with " those of the Protestant denominations, and to require all " members of the community, whether Catholic or Protestant, " to contribute through taxation to the support of what are " therein called public schools, but which are in reality a " continuation of the Protestant schools."‡ This petition was brought as a formal appeal to the Governor under seection 22. ii. of the Manitoba Act, and became in its turn the subject of prolonged litigation.§ The final decision was given by the Judicial Committee of the Privy Council in England on January 28, 1895, to the effect that rights and privileges enjoyed by the Catholic minority under the legislation of 1870–89 had undoubtedly been injuriously affected by the Act of 1890, and therefore that the appeal to the Governor-General was admissible; that he certainly had jurisdiction in the matter of making the remedial order prayed for, though they (the Judicial Committee) declined to suggest what particular course should be pursued by him; they added that in any case there was no need to re-enact the legislation which had been in force prior to 1890, or to repeal the Act of 1890 objected to, since the case could be met merely by supplementing or modifying the latter in the direction desired. A convenient summary of their reasons for this decision is given on page 11 of the Judgment.‖ After saying that the reasons for, or the expediency of, the 1890 Acts were immaterial to the purely legal or constitutional question then before them, they added:—

"The sole question to be determined is whether a right or privilege which the Roman Catholic minority previously enjoyed has been affected by the legislation of 1890. Their Lordships are unable to see how this question can receive any but an affirmative answer. Contrast the position of the Roman Catholics prior and subsequent to the Acts from which they appeal.

* *Vide* A. iv., *supra*. † Sessional Papers, No. 30, p. 9.

‡ This contention is denied by the Protestants, who maintain that there is nothing distinctively Protestant in these schools, as the latter are "unsectarian." To this however, many Catholics reply that the unsectarian teaching is unacceptable to them as being "non-Catholic."

§ *Vide* Appendix II., *infra*. ‖ Ottawa Blue Book, No. 20, 1895.

Before these passed into law there existed denominational schools, of which the control and management were in the hands of Roman Catholics, who could select the books to be used and determine the character of the religious teaching. These schools received their proportionate share of the money contributed for school purposes out of the general taxation of the province, and the money raised for these purposes by local assessment was, so far as it fell upon Catholics, applied only towards the support of Catholic schools. What is the position of the Roman Catholic minority under the Acts of 1890? Schools of their own denomination, conducted according to their views, will receive no aid from the State. They must depend entirely for their support upon the contributions of the Roman Catholic community, while the taxes out of which State aid is granted to the schools provided for by the Statute fall alike on Catholics and Protestants. Moreover, while the Catholic inhabitants remain liable to local assessment for school purposes, the proceeds of that assessment are no longer destined to any extent for the support of Catholic schools, but afford the means of maintaining schools which they regard as no more suitable for the education of Catholic children than if they were distinctively Protestant in their character.

"In view of this comparison, it does not seem possible to say that the rights and privileges of the Roman Catholic minority in relation to education, which existed prior to 1890, have not been affected."

D.

Accordingly, in obedience to an Imperial order (given at Osborne, on February 2nd, 1895, as the result of this Judgment), the Governor-General heard the appeal of the Catholics at Ottawa. The case was argued at length on both sides,* by Mr. Ewart for the Catholic and by Mr. Macarthy for the Manitoba Legislature, from February 27th to March 7th. The decision arrived at† was that certain "rights and privileges enjoyed by "the Catholic minority in relation to education," prior to the 1st day of May 1890 have been affected, viz.:—

(*a.*) The right to build, maintain, equip, manage, conduct and support Roman Catholic schools in the manner provided for by the said Statutes, which were repealed by the two Acts of 1890 aforesaid.

(*b.*) The right to share proportionately in any grant made out of the public funds for the purposes of education.

(*c.*) The right of exemption of such Roman Catholics as contribute to Roman Catholic schools from all payment or contribution to the support of any other schools;—

and that the Acts of 1890 must be supplemented by an Act which would restore to the Catholic minority the rights of which they had been deprived;—

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* Ottawa Blue Book. Proceedings in the Manitoba schools case. 1895.
† Ottawa Blue Book, No. 20, p. 24.

and that if the legislature of Manitoba refused or neglected to enact such remedial legislation the Dominion Government *would have the right* to pass such a law.

This decision was embodied in the Remedial Order of March 21st, 1895, and forwarded to the Manitoban Provincial Government. The province, however, refused to obey the Order, and sent a reply on May 8th to the Dominion Government to the effect that* they declined to alter their educational policy, adopted after full deliberation and with intimate knowledge of the needs and conditions of their people, in favour of a denominational system demanded by a small fraction of the population; and they suggested that if the Dominion Government would investigate further into the circumstances and needs of the province they would see the inexpediency of any such change, and would then refrain from enforcing any remedial legislation or coercing the province into granting denominational privileges of any kind, in opposition to the declared will of the people.

Upon this it became necessary for the Dominion Cabinet to decide upon the policy to be pursued towards the recalcitrant province, and on July 8th it was announced† that the Dominion Government still hoped and believed that the Manitoba Government would find it possible to take action in the direction required, and that no remedial legislation would, therefore, be proposed in the Dominion Parliament at that late period of the session; that Manitoba would once more be asked to pass the necessary measures; and that in January, 1896, if no action had been taken in Manitoba, the Dominion Government would then "introduce and press to a conclusion such legislation as will "afford an adequate measure of relief to the said minority, based "upon the lines of the judgment of the Privy Council and "the Remedial Order of March 1st, 1895."

This declaration of policy was strongly criticised, both by the friends of the Catholics and by the supporters of the Manitoban Government; by the former on the grounds that if it were admitted to be right and necessary that redress should be given to the Catholics under the injustice they were suffering, such redress should be given at once; that nothing could justify this delay in retrieving the promises made to the Catholics at their original entrance into the Union; by the latter, on the grounds that no remedial, *i.e.*, denominational, legislation ought ever to be enforced upon the province, whether that year or any other year, by the Federal Government, in opposition to the declared will of the people and the Legislature. But a motion to censure the Government policy on either or both of the above grounds was lost by 114 votes to 70, and the Government motion was adopted on July 18th 1895.‡

The position at this stage (August 1895) may be summed up by saying that in 1890 the province of Manitoba had passed

* Hansard, p. 4438. † Hansard, p. 3997. § Hansard, p. 4707.

the Acts abolishing the separate schools system, after the fullest discussion, with the help of Conservatives as well as Liberals, by 25 votes to 11; furthermore, this decision was shortly followed by a general election, in which the "denominational schools" question was the great question before the electors; and in the provincial parliament then elected (1893), the repeal of the 1890 Acts was negatived by 34 votes to 4. Thus it was sufficiently plain that Manitoba herself was not likely now to give way upon the point; the only hope of the separate school party lay necessarily in the now promised interference of the Federal Parliament.

The Remedial Bill was not introduced at the beginning of the following year, but delayed for nearly eight months, viz., till March 2nd, 1896, by which time the Conservative Government then in power had less than two months left to them before the necessary dissolution of Parliament. The Bill was of necessity highly contentious, and was also very lengthy; and it was evident from the first that it had no chance of being carried, nor, indeed, of being completely considered, in the short time remaining. Such discussion as took place on it in March and April was marked by bitter and prolonged opposition; and so after the dissolution on April 24th, 1896, the whole question was left to be fought out at the ensuing general election throughout the whole Dominion of Canada.

Mention, however, must here be made of an attempt made by the then Dominion Cabinet, just before the debates above referred to, to effect a compromise with the Manitoba authorities, through the representations of a special commission sent for the purpose under the leadership of Sir Donald Smith. Although the atmosphere at the time was too thick with strife to admit of any success in this attempt, yet the details of the proposal are interesting as foreshadowing the lines of the only possible alternative to absolute coercion. The essence of the proposed settlement was that in towns and villages where there were 25 Catholic children of school age, and in cities where there were 50 such children, arrangements should be made by which they might have a schoolhouse or schoolroom for their own use, and be taught by a teacher of their own faith.* Although, as has been said, these proposals failed to obtain any serious consideration in Manitoba as being incompatible with a completely national system, and in reality a return on a small scale to the principle of separate schools, yet it is probable that the publication of the proposals and of the receptions accorded them had a very appreciable influence in educating public opinion to think out what were vital points, and what were not, in the great question of the existence of denominational public schools, which was to be the test question of the dominion election. It must not be forgotten that in Canada the question was practically one affecting Catholics only, not the various

* The "Canadian Gazette," March 11th, 1897.

sections of Protestants. And herein the question, while being the more accurate, was perhaps also the more susceptible of a clear-cut issue, from the simpleness of the differentiation between Catholic and non-Catholic teachers or schools.

Without entering upon controversial matters, it may be briefly stated that in the election struggle the Catholic schools system was the main question, and that the Catholic bishops and clergy threw themselves vigorously into the contest, and exerted their utmost strength to secure the return of members pledged either to establish separate schools, or else, in vaguer terms, to see justice done to the Catholic minority in Manitoba. But though the numerical key to the victory in the Dominion Parliament was actually in the hands of the most Catholic province, Quebec, where the influence of the hierarchy was at its strongest, yet the Liberal Opposition leader was returned to power by a considerable majority; and the Liberal party thus took the lead in Canadian politics for the first time in 18 years.* It is true that several considerations, rather political and economic, and even perhaps ethnological, helped to bring about Mr. Laurier's triumph; but the latter's solemn undertaking to settle within six months the Manitoba schools difficulty which had racked Canadian politics for over six years, was undoubtedly a strong element in the situation, since it was felt that if on the one hand a definitely coercive measure could never be put into operative effect in Manitoba, nor the Catholics on the other hand induced to accept the Manitoba public schools, the only hope of a settlement acceptable to both sides lay in some proposal emanating from a leader who would be at once a non-coercionist by political, and a Catholic by religious, conviction.

The next stage in the struggle is, therefore, the compromise at once put forward by Mr. Laurier, on the part of the Dominion, and subsequently accepted by Mr. Greenway, the Premier of Manitoba. It was very much on the lines suggested by Sir Donald Smith's earlier commission, but was on the whole less favourable to the Catholics. The main points were these:—On a petition signed by the parents or guardians of 10 children attending a school in a rural district, or of 25 children in a town or village, any clergyman or authorised religious teacher is to be permitted access to the school to give religious instruction at stated times. And in any town school where the average attendance of Roman Catholic children is 40 or upwards (in rural districts 25 or upwards) they may be entitled to the services of one Catholic teacher, who must, however, be fully

* The editor of the "Tablet" writes in the "Nineteenth Century" for April 1897: "The whole strength of the Catholic hierarchy of Quebec, the province "in which the Catholics commanded a majority of over a million, was thrown "into the scale in favour of the educational policy with which the Conservative "party was identified; and not the less the Liberals triumphed all along the "line, and in Catholic Quebec carried 50 seats out of 85 . . . In defiance "of the most strenuous efforts of many of the bishops, Catholic Quebec joined "hands with Protestant Ontario, and returned the Liberal party to power in "Ottawa."

qualified according to provincial or national school standards. In districts where the children speak French wholly, they are to have a teacher speaking both French and English, so that the teaching may be on the bilingual system. But all schools are to be national, under provincial control, and subject to the same regulations and inspections. The same text books are to be used, and all teachers must be properly qualified by passing the provincial examinations and taking the prescribed normal school course.*

There can be no doubt that these proposals were put forward by Mr. Laurier as being the utmost concessions that he could hope to obtain from Manitoba, and as at the same time offering some substantial remedy for the aggrieved Catholics. Yet it may be noted that the advantages gained were considerably less than those sought by Sir Donald Smith, inasmuch as the Catholic children were now only permitted to have individual Catholic teachers here and there, and in no case separate schools of their own. This, indeed, was the one point, the basic point in the whole matter, on which each side professed to be immovable. Manitoba said, we will under certain circumstances allow your priest to give Catholic religious instruction to your children in our schools at stated times, and under certain other special circumstances we will allow a teacher of your faith to give even the secular instruction to your children in our schools; but the school must be national, must be directly under the one national authority and managed on common lines with all the other schools. While, on the other hand, the Catholics clung tenaciously to their original claim: our children must be in Catholic schools, in a Catholic atmosphere, with nought but Catholic influence and Catholic teaching, whether the children are doing arithmetic, science, or any other subject; since the teacher's point of view, the basis of the teacher's ethical position, and the teacher's religious opinions (still more his belief and faith and enthusiasm, if he has any) cannot but have profound and ceaseless influence on the children at all times, whatever be the subject of the lesson in hand. The following excerpts from an address given by the Right Rev. the Archbishop of St. Boniface,† when urging the repudiation of the Laurier-Greenway settlement, will perhaps best show the strength of feeling and conviction on this difficult question, and the deep-seated religious principles which it is felt are at stake in the matter.

"The Undenominational School System Condemned.‡

"The system of common and neutral schools has been condemned by the Catholic Church in the most emphatic terms as dangerous and unacceptable in itself. In 1878, Leo XIII. gloriously reigning now, speaking

* The text of the official document is given in Appendix III. below.

† In delivering the address his Grace made free use of notes, being evidently desirous of making none but the most guarded utterances. "Tablet," December 26, 1896.

‡ This report is taken from the columns of the "Tablet."

of an attempt to secularize the elementary schools of Rome said: 'It is 'a measure worthy of reproof, an attempt against the religion and piety 'of the Roman people.' Innumerable are the instructions given by the Holy See to the different nations of the world about this system of common or neutral schools. The venerable archbishops and bishops of Germany, Belgium, France, England, Ireland, the United States, and Canada, have received special instructions, and in their pastoral letters, in their venerable councils, they have expressed but one and the same opinion. The whole hierarchy of the Catholic Church, all those, too, who are endowed with the true Catholic spirit, all those too who admit the great principle of authority by which we are all ruled, no matter who we are—all those are agreed on the question that we cannot in conscience accept a system of common or secular schools. Last year I received a letter from the Sacred Congregation of the Faith, and in the letter it was stated that we must oppose neutral schools. It is a false principle which goes to say that Catholic children can attend without danger neutral schools, because not to speak of several other things, the very fact that the true religion, as well as all others, is precluded from the precincts of such institutions has a bad effect on the minds of the little ones. Religion is then excluded from the prominent position it should have in every detail of our lives, and particularly in the education of the youth. The Holy See adds: 'This system diminishes in the mind of the child that esteem 'he should entertain for religion.' Can a Catholic in conscience uphold contrary principles? Assuredly not—it would be a real scandal for a Catholic to speak against this . . . . . Another question is, 'Why do you not accept common schools for the sake of nationality—to 'have a united people?' I will answer with the words of the venerable late Cardinal Manning. Here is what that great man considered as the only true condition of things for the prosperity of his country, England: 'A moral union—this is possible to a free people educating themselves by 'self help and public aid of the commonwealth in liberty of conscience, 'and a healthy diversity of culture is the vigour and maturity of a nation. 'Let us beware, my dear brethren, for this doctrine of common education 'is a doctrine of the Radicals of France, and I am quite sure that many 'honest men who uphold this system would never accept the consequences 'that are so agreeable to those revolutionary men. They are men of 'honour and law-abiding citizens, and surely they would not, if they 'realized what they are doing, be prepared to assist in carrying out here 'what must be the logical result of such a system. Theories that are 'now put forward in this country may fascinate at first an honest soul, 'but reflection will show that they are dangerous and unworkable.' Alas! this neutral, secular, Godless education, has wrecked poor France. Many will recommend the plan of common schools on the plea of a more complete secular instruction, but I fail to see why we cannot impart full secular education together with religious instruction. It is taken for granted by some that our schools are inferior, but this is altogether unfair and untrue. It is a gratuitous assertion . . . . . No. We do not want any Government help if the education is not efficient; we are anxious to have the best possible area, to have the best qualified teachers, to stir up the good will of the parents, of the teachers, of the children; and all this we can do in Catholic schools just as well as it can be done in any other school. . . . . People will say that we sometimes allow our children to attend other schools. Yes, we do in case of absolute necessity and this shows how anxious and sincere we are in giving our children education; but there is an immense difference between a particular case of necessity, and a general principle by which we would accept a state of affairs altogether contrary to Catholic teachings. We admit that in some cases where we cannot have a Catholic school we allow our children to go to the public schools for the moment, but this is no argument against us; on the contrary, it is in our favour, for the exception confirms the rule. Again, it is not at all because we are afraid of having too much secular education that we do not want our children to attend common schools, but it is because, though we value thoroughly efficient secular education, we value yet more liberty of conscience. . . . . .

We must have in our schools a Christian, Catholic, atmosphere; religion must pervade the whole school life and not be relegated to the end of the day when children are weary and anxious to go, so that to be kept in is a penance to them . . . . . We ask for our Catholic schools because they are the best safeguard of the rights given to parents by the law of nature. We have the greatest consideration for the opinions of the majority, we are satisfied that they should have schools which suit them, but we ask is it just on their part to force us into accepting what they are pleased to consider is sufficient? Will they be less educated, will their children receive an inferior education, because we have our liberty of educating our children according to our principles?"

The spirit of the foregoing address sufficiently shows that the suggested settlement was not likely to be accepted at all willingly by the Catholics, even though Manitoba might declare that in agreeing to these proposals she had gone absolutely as far in the direction of concession as she would ever go. In fact, the agitation for separate Catholic schools was maintained as vigorously as ever in certain quarters, the settlement widely condemned, and Mr. Laurier denounced as no true Catholic for having suggested it and urged it as a final settlement.

A majority of the Catholic bishops pronounced against it. Archbishop Langevin, after publicly denouncing it in his cathedral, ordered 10 separate schools to be opened and maintained at the expense of the Church; and it was even stated that the minority intended to introduce a remedial Bill into Parliament in opposition to Mr. Laurier's policy. On January 28th the "Times" correspondent in Rome announced:—

"I have been informed on undoubted authority that the French-Canadian bishops were prepared with a joint pastoral on the Manitoba schools question, in which they stated that the sacraments would be refused to those accepting the terms offered by the Government. The pastoral, however, was not issued because the English-speaking bishops were not prepared to accept it."

On the other hand, it is evident that the whole body of Catholics were not opposed to a compromise of some sort; thus, at the end of March, a Toronto newspaper states:—

"No one who has been reading, even cursorily, what has been happening in Lower Canada during the last year can have failed to be convinced that an ecclesiastical revolution is in progress in that province. . . . . Those who know the country and its people will tell us that the Ultramontane party who have for some years dominated the hierarchy of that province, has stretched the prerogatives which they claim a good deal too far, and that vast numbers of French-Canadians, who are loyal and devout Roman Catholics, ready to follow the instructions of their clergy in things ecclesiastical, absolutely refuse to obey their dictation any longer in things political and secular. This reaction, we are told, is based upon two distinct drifts. One, under the leadership of returned residents in the United States, tending to open infidelity; and the other, inspired by the still lingering traditions of the first French settlers in the province, tending towards a restoration of what is called Gallicanism, and which was the dominant, in fact, the all-pervading, sentiment of the province until the Jesuits gained the ascendancy."

However this may be, it was clear that the Government had gone too far to draw back, and that some form of settlement must be arrived at.

It must, moreover, be remembered that at the general elections which put Mr. Laurier and the Liberal party into power, both

the Premier and his supporters were absolutely pledged, to quote Mr. Laurier's own words, "to bring about a settlement "which should be satisfactory to all parties concerned; failing "which, recourse would be had to the constitutional means "provided by the law of Canada—means which shall be "adopted, if necessary, wholly and effectively."

It should at the same time be mentioned in this connexion that Mr. Snead Cox (the editor of the "Tablet") has stated that, owing to the way in which the Catholics in Manitoba are collected in particular districts, the concession of a Catholic teacher granted under the new settlement is considered by many to be really the only thing required to secure a genuine Catholic school. The school in these localities would be attended almost exclusively by Catholic children, taught by a Catholic teacher, and controlled by Catholic trustees, since the latter are, under the law, *locally* elected. On the other hand, however, the same Catholic writer says,* "though such a system might work "well locally, accidentally, and temporarily, it is open to the "fatal objection that *it accepts the principle of the 'mixed "school,'* which has so often been condemned by the Holy See. "Besides, in a large school the presence of one Catholic teacher "among several certainly would not constitute what is meant "by a Catholic school. It must, then, be taken that the "Bishops are right in refusing to sanction the arrangement."

In this apparent deadlock, 45 Catholic members of the Senate and Commons of Canada, including four or five members of Mr. Laurier's administration, and, subsequently, Mr. Laurier himself, associated themselves in a common request to the Pope to send an Apostolic Delegate to investigate the whole question on the spot; and it was hoped that the mediation of the Apostolic Commissioner might be the means of bringing all parties together, and, while perhaps abating some of the extreme demands of certain well-meaning partisans, might win for the minority in Manitoba terms in which they can honourably acquiesce.†

Accordingly a Papal Ablegate, M. Merry de Val, sailed for Canada at the end of March. Almost immediately on his commencing his investigations, the Government of Manitoba carried the matter a step further by ratifying and giving the force of law to the previously suggested so-called "Laurier-Greenway" settlement, with the intention doubtless of confronting the Ablegate with a *fait accompli*.

In June it was reported‡ that the Dominion Minister of the Interior had visited Winnipeg with the express object of trying to obtain from the Premier of Manitoba certain trifling modifications in the schools settlement which were earnestly desired by the Papal Ablegate; but that these efforts were unsuccessful,

* "Nineteenth Century," April 1897.
† The Editor of the "Tablet," in the "Nineteenth Century."
‡ "Manchester Guardian," June 28th, 1897.

since the Manitoba Government positively declined to alter the settlement first agreed to.

More recent news from Canada is to the effect that the Ablegate was so struck with the way in which the recent elections swept Mr. Laurier (joint author of the settlement) and the Liberals into power, even in Quebec, that for this and other reasons he inclines to the course of leaving undisturbed the settlement as recently adopted by the Manitoba Legislature, asking only for a reiteration of the pledge given at the time by Mr. Greenway, namely, that the school law would be administered in the broadest spirit of toleration and conciliation towards the Catholics.*

Should this be the final decision on this most difficult matter, the Catholics will doubtless consider that the case of Manitoba must be, and has been, looked upon as one of those special circumstances referred to in the Archbishop's address above quoted, where the paucity of their numbers and the poverty of the inhabitants preclude the possibility of applying the otherwise dominating principle of separate schools for Catholic children, for which the Catholics have struggled so long, so conscientiously, and so consistently in every country in Europe.

APPENDIX I.

I.—*Summary of the Arguments used on either Side on the Question of restoring the Separate School System in Manitoba.*

uestion.

The question at issue, put briefly, was: Shall the present system of uniform undenominational public elementary schools created in 1890 be modified for the purpose of giving the Catholic minority of the population a right to have separate schools of their own assisted by the public funds, and an immunity from rates levied to support schools which they do not use?

ontentions of ie Catholic inority.

The Catholics contended the answer must be Yes; because by the constitution of Canada, by the conditions under which Manitoba entered the union, and by the promises then made to them by the Queen and the Imperial Government, this right was expressly reserved to them in perpetuity, in special regard to the possibility of their becoming some day a small minority; so that separate schools cannot now be withheld without gross contravention of rights and privileges which they had enjoyed for many years, as shown by the following considerations:—

(i.) Under the Act passed between 1870 and 1890 Catholics had enjoyed immunity from being taxed for schools

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* The "Times," May 27th, 1897.

other than their own, and this immunity is now withdrawn. Compare B. 18, 23 with C. 10, *supra.*

(ii.) They had formerly the right of organisation and self-government in the matter of providing schools to suit their own wishes, and of this they are now deprived. They can still elect their own local trustees, but the power of the latter is now so restricted by the Advisory Board regulations that the existence of their trustees brings them no advantage. Compare B. 7, 4, 19 with C. 4, 7, *supra.*

(iii.) They had enjoyed the right of taxing their own people, and of sharing in the public grants for education, for the support of schools which were adapted to their religious needs, and this is now expressly prohibited. Compare B. 3, 8, 17, 18 with C. 5, 11, *supra.*

(iv.) Before 1890 each religious section of the community was taxed to support schools which it could use without doing violence to its religious feelings; this is no longer the case. For though, as far as the Protestant portion of the people is concerned, the new non-sectarian schools with their minimum of religion may be acceptable, to the Catholics they are abhorrent and impossible—so that Catholics have to subscribe funds privately to provide schools which they can use, in addition to the money they pay in taxes to support the public schools which they cannot use;—a double burden from which Protestants are free.

(v.) The present so-called non-sectarian public schools are, in fact, and in practice, *Protestant* schools;—a continuation of the former schools of the Protestant section of the Board, managed in every way to suit Protestants, but supported by public funds (including rates and taxes paid by Catholics); this implies a special privilege to Protestants, which is unjust to Catholics and contrary to the spirit of the Act of Union.

(vi.) While it is true that the Catholics are but a small minority in Manitoba—some twenty, out of a hundred and fifty, thousand—yet they have a right to their own privileges, just as in Quebec the Protestants (who are there an even *smaller* fraction of the whole) are accorded under the education laws the fullest privileges by the Catholic majority. And in New Brunswick and Nova Scotia, though there is no law permitting it, yet by common consent the Catholics are permitted to occupy certain of the public schools almost exclusively, and there to teach their children such parts of their doctrines as they think fit. And a similar concession prevails in Prince Edward Island.* Why should Manitoba alone refuse to the Catholics any vestige of

* Proceedings, p. 15.

privileges and any possibility of an extension such as they have?

(3.) Schools for providing education in accordance with their own faith had been built in former times by Catholics with funds contributed entirely by Catholics either by rates or subscriptions, trusting in the good faith of the legislature that such schools would never be alienated from them. But these schools and buildings and other properties have now been confiscated and turned over to non-sectarian schools, which give an education that Catholics cannot use. Compare B. 4 and C. 5, 9, 10, &c. A special sum of $13,000 is named in one of the affidavits as a case of this confiscation.*

Contention of the majority.

The majority and the Government party contended, in reply, that while practically admitting that various former privileges had been withdrawn from the Catholics, yet, on the other hand, the undenominational system was necessary for the good of the province as a whole, for the following considerations:—

(1.) Separate schools, *i.e.*, schools conducted with the special object of furthering one form of religious belief, have, they alleged, been everywhere found to tend to illiteracy in the people. Thus Mr. Macarthy says:—"In "schools under the control of the Church the people "are not educated so well or so generally as in those "countries in which the schools are wholly under the "State control," and he seeks to support this contention by the statistics of Ireland, Italy, Spain, and Portugal.† While in Canada the lowest of all the States in educational standard is Quebec, where separate Church schools preponderate.

(2.) The existence of these separate schools for Catholics means the perpetuation of French-speaking schools, and the indefinite postponement of complete national unity in Manitoba.

(3.) If the teaching of the Catholic faith is to be supported by public funds, then the Presbyterians will have the right to demand *their* separate schools, and the Methodists theirs, the Episcopalians theirs, &c.‡ This would destroy every prospect of a uniform system of national education for the whole province.

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* This has been absolutely denied by the Manitoba Government, and the following statement was sent to the Dominion Parliament, *vide* Hansard, p. 4544:—"We "understand that it has been lately suggested that private funds of the Catholic "Church and people had been invested in school buildings and land that are now "appropriated for public school purposes. No evidence of such fact has ever been "laid before us, so far as we can ascertain, but we profess ourselves willing, if any "such injustice can be established, to make full and fair compensation therefor."

† Mr. Macarthy speaking for the Dominion Government. Sessional Papers, No. 33, p. 64:—"Throughout the continent of Europe in those countries where the Church "has most control (Italy, for example) illiteracy is far more prevalent (the dis-"proportion in some cases is enormous) than it is in Protestant States."

‡ This actually occurred in 1891. *Vide* Appendix II., *infra*, Logan's Case.

(4.) The whole experience of Canada declares against the denominational system. "Every province of the "Dominion that has been free has already deliberately "adopted the public school system."* In New Brunswick an attempt was made—as now in Manitoba—to force the restoration of separate schools upon the province, but it was successfully resisted, and the Dominion Government refrained at the last moment from insisting. Precisely the same attempt was made in Prince Edward Island, with the same result. Nova Scotia has adopted the undenominational system. In Ontario "separate schools" do exist; and in that province "there are more heartburnings and bitterness than in any other province in the Dominion."†

(5.) The injustice and hardship to Catholics have been greatly exaggerated. They *can* send their children to the public non-sectarian schools. "In Ontario the immense "majority of Catholic children go to the public schools "in preference to the separate schools,"‡—*e.g.*, in the Simcoe county of Ontario, only 221 children out of the total 2,317 are sent to the separate schools. And the supreme authority on this question, viz., the delegate of the Apostolic See to the United States, has expressly laid it down that "when the Catholic "school available is little fitted for giving the children "an education in keeping with their condition, then "the public schools may be attended with a safe "conscience;" and he added that persons so using them were "not to be considered unworthy."§

(6.) Because the Dominion Government have already laid down a fixed policy on questions of this kind, viz., that no statute passed by a province ought to be interfered with by Federal Government veto or disallowance, except under the strongest proof that harm will otherwise result to the Dominion as a whole. This cannot be said of the present matter, since it is a purely local question. And since Manitoba has already once been brought to the verge of rebellion by an attempt at federal disallowance in the case of her railway laws, it is utter folly to court this danger again, merely to restore certain ancient privileges to a section of the province numbering less than one-twentieth of the whole, in the face of the emphatic and final declaration of the Manitoban Government as expressed in the Queen's speech at the last opening of Parliament:—"It is not the intention "of my Government in any way to recede from its "determination to uphold the present public schools

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* Macarthy.
† Proceedings, p. 77.
‡ Proceedings, pp. 53, 84, 85.
§ *Ibid.*, p. 78.

" system, which, if left to its own operation, would in
" all probability soon become universal throughout the
" province."*

APPENDIX II.

Summary of Litigation and Legislative Action

1890. Passing of the Public Schools Act: including a bye-law empowering a rate on all residents, for the support of the new public schools.

1891. *Feb.* *Barrett*, a Catholic, applied to the Court of Queen's Bench to quash this byelaw, as invalid under section 22, § i., of Manitoba Act. Application refused.

Oct. *Barrett* appealed to Supreme Court of Canada, who reversed the order, and decided that the Act was invalid.

Logan, a Protestant, applied thereupon to the Court of Queen's Bench to obtain the same immunity, on the grounds that the public schools did not correspond to the needs of his particular belief. Application granted, in view of the decision of Supreme Court.

1893. *Feb.* *Winnipeg*, *i.e.*, the Manitoba Government, appealed both these cases to the Judicial Committee of the Privy Council, where the last decision was reversed, and the byelaws and Acts were held to be valid, because they infringed no rights prevalent *at* the Union.

1892, *Nov. 26th.* Meantime the Catholics signed a memorial, bringing an appeal to the Governor-General in Council to give them redress under the deprivation of privileges enjoyed by them under the laws of the province ever *since 1871*.

This appeal was submitted to a sub-committee of his Council to investigate whether or not it should be heard. They waited till the final decision in *Winnipeg* v. *Logan and*

Dec. *Barrett* had been given, and then decided that the appeal was in order and should be heard.

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* Proceedings, p. 69.

1893. *Jan. 2nd.* At the hearing, the Governor found it necessary to submit various legal points to the Supreme Court to decide as to his jurisdiction and the validity of the appeal.

1894. *Feb. 20th.* The Supreme Court decided, by 5–2 *against* the hearing of the appeal.

Dec. 11th. The Catholics appealed this decision to the *Judicial Committee of the Privy Council*, where the decision was reversed, and it was

1895. *Jan. 28th.* Decided that Catholic rights enjoyed *after* the Union had certainly been infringed, and that the appeal to the Governor should be examined into.

Feb. 2nd. Imperial Order in Council issued, ordering the Governor to hear the appeal.

Feb. 26–May 7th. Hearing of the case, argued on both sides, before the Governor-General in Council.

Mar. 19th. Decided that effect must be given to the appeal, that rights have been contravened, and that remedial legislation must be passed to restore those rights, by the province; failing which the Dominion Parliament would have the right to pass the necessary measures.

Mar. 21st. Remedial Order in Council to this effect.

May 28th. The Manitoba Provincial Legislature definitely refuses to obey the remedial order or to alter her public school system.

July 8th. The Dominion Cabinet reiterate their warning, and promise a Remedial Bill if the province remains obdurate.

1896. *Mar. 2nd.* A Remedial Bill is submitted in the Dominion Parliament, but fails to pass before the dissolution.

Mar. 5th. Failure of new compromise suggested by Sir Donald Smith's mission from Ottawa to Manitoba.

Apr. 24th. Dissolution of Canadian Parliament and general election.

June. Mr. Laurier, Liberal leader, a French-speaking Catholic, returned to power, pledged to settle the Manitoba school question without coercion.

Dec. A settlement is agreed upon between Mr. Laurier and Mr. Greenway (Premier of Manitoba), giving certain rights to the

Catholics in certain localities, but maintaining the National system and refusing separate schools.

1897. *Jan.* This proposal is vehemently denounced by many of the Catholic hierarchy of Canada.

Mar. 20th. After a general appeal to the Pope for arbitration or counsel, a Papal Ablegate is sent from Rome to Canada to investigate the matter.

May 26th. The Ablegate is reported to incline towards recommending the acceptance of the last Laurier-Greenway settlement, on the understanding that Manitoba will carry it out with as full a consideration as possible for Catholic needs.

APPENDIX III.

MANITOBA SCHOOLS SETTLEMENT OF DECEMBER 1896.

*Official Text.**

The following is the official text of the memorandum explaining M. Laurier's settlement of the Manitoba Schools Settlement:—

(1.) Legislation shall be introduced and passed at the regular session of the Legislature of Manitoba embodying the provisions herein-after set forth in amendment to the "Public Schools Act," for the purpose of settling the educational questions that have been in dispute in that province.

(2.) Religious teaching to be conducted as herein-after provided: (1) If authorised by a resolution passed by a majority of the school trustees; or (2) if a petition be presented to the Board of School Trustees asking for religious teaching, and signed by the parents or guardians of at least ten children attending the school in the case of a rural district, or by the parents or guardians of at least 25 children attending the school in a city, town, or village.

(3.) Such religious teaching to take place between the hours of 3.30 and 4 o'clock in the afternoon, and to be conducted by any Christian clergyman whose charge includes any portion of the school district, or by any

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* Given in the "Tablet" newspaper of December 26, 1896.

person duly authorised by such clergyman, or by a teacher when so authorised.

(4.) Where so specified in such resolution of the trustees, or where so required by the petition of the parents or guardians, religious teaching during the prescribed period may take place only on specified days of the week instead of on every teaching day.

(5.) In any school in towns and cities where the average attendance of Roman Catholic children is 40 or upwards, and in villages and rural districts where the average attendance of such children is 25 or upwards, the trustees shall, if required by the petition of the parents or guardians of such number of Roman Catholic children respectively, employ at least one duly certificated Roman Catholic teacher in such school. In any school in towns and cities where the average attendance of non-Roman Catholic children is 40 or upwards, and in villages and rural districts where the average attendance of such children is 25 or upwards, the trustees shall, if required by the petition of the parents or guardians of such children, employ at least one duly certificated non-Roman Catholic teacher.

(6.) Where religious teaching is required to be carried on in any school in pursuance of the foregoing provisions and there are Roman Catholic children and non-Roman Catholic children attending such school, and the schoolroom accommodation does not permit of the pupils being placed in separate rooms for the purpose of religious teaching, provisions shall be made by the regulations of the Department of Education (which regulation the Board of School Trustees shall observe) whereby the time allotted for religious teaching shall be divided in such a way that the religious teaching of the Roman Catholic children may be carried on during the prescribed period on one half of the teaching days in each month, and the religious teaching of the non-Roman Catholic children may be carried on during the prescribed period on one half of the teaching days in each month.

(7.) The Department of Education shall have the power to make regulations, not inconsistent with the principles of this Act, for the carrying into effect the provisions of this Act.

(8.) No separation of the pupils by religious denominations shall take place during the secular school work.

(9.) Where the schoolroom accommodation at the disposal of the trustees permits, instead of allotting different days of the week to the different denominations for the purpose of religious teaching, the pupils may be sepa-

rated when the hour for religious teaching arrives, and placed in separate rooms.

(10.) Where ten of the pupils in any school speak the French language (or any language other than English) as their native language, the teaching of such pupils shall be conducted in French (or such other language) and English upon the bilingual system.

(11.) No pupils to be permitted to be present at any religious teaching unless the parents or guardians of such pupils desire it. In case the parents or guardians do not desire the attendance of the pupils at such religious teaching, then the pupils shall be dismissed before the exercises, or shall remain in another room.

R. L. MORANT.

The Admission of Women to Universities.

SUMMARY of the ARRANGEMENTS in FORCE at the CHIEF UNIVERSITIES in the BRITISH EMPIRE and ABROAD.

The following tables summarise the regulations now in force as regards the admission of women students at the chief Universities in Great Britain and Ireland, on the Continent of Europe, in the United States of America, and Canada, in India, and in Australasia. They are based, with six exceptions, on returns furnished by the University authorities to whom the following questions were addressed :—

(1.) Are women students admitted as members of the University ?

(2) If so, are they admitted on the same terms as men students or on what other conditions ?

(3.) Are they admitted (i) to the lectures, (ii) to the examination of the University ?

(4.) Are they eligible for University degrees, or for a certificate in lieu of them ?

The replies which were kindly furnished in answer to these questions are summarised and tabulated below. My thanks are due to the distinguished University officials who supplied the information on which the summaries are based.

The Universities, in respect of which information has been obtained, are the following :—

England.—Oxford, Cambridge, London, Durham, Victoria (with the constituent colleges of the last named).

Wales.—University of Wales (with its constituent colleges).

Scotland.—Edinburgh, Aberdeen, Glasgow, St. Andrews.

Ireland.—Trinity College, Dublin; Royal University of Ireland; Catholic University of Ireland.

Canada.—McGill University, Montreal; Toronto; University of New Brunswick; Dalhousie University, Halifax; and Queen's University, Kingston.

Australasia.—Universities of Sydney, Melbourne, Adelaide, Tasmania, New Zealand.

India.—Madras, Allahabad, Punjab, Calcutta, Bombay.

France.—Aix, Besançon, Bordeaux, Caen, Clermont, Dijon, Grenoble, Lille, Lyon, Marseilles, Montpellier, Nancy, Paris, Poitiers, Rennes, and Toulouse.

Belgium. —Université Libre of Brussels, Université Nouvelle of Brussels; Liége; Université Catholique, Louvain; Gand.

Holland.—Utrecht, Leiden, Groningen, Amsterdam.

Denmark.—Copenhagen.

Norway.—Christiania.

Sweden.—Lund, Upsala.

Germany.—Berlin, Bonn, Breslau, Erlangen, Freiburg, Giessen, Göttingen, Greifswald, Halle, Heidelberg, Jena, Kiel, Königsberg, Leipzig, Marburg, Munich, Rostock, Strassburg, Tübingen, Würzburg.

Austria.—Graz, Innsbrück, Cracow, Lemberg, Prague, Vienna.

Switzerland.—Basel, Berne, Fribourg, Geneva, Zürich.

Italy with *Sicily* and *Sardinia.*—Bologna, Cagliari, Genoa, Messina, Modena, Naples, Padua, Pavia, Perugia, Rome, Siena, Turin, Urbino.

Spain.—Barcelona, Granada, Salamanca.

Greece.—Athens.

Roumania.—Iasi, Bucharest.

Russia with *Finland.*—Odessa, St. Petersburg, Kharkof, Helsingfors.

United States of America.—Brown University, California, Chicago, Clark, Colarado, Columbia (City of New York), Columbian, Cornell, Radcliffe College (Harvard University), Indiana, Johns Hopkins, Leland Stanford Jun., Michigan, Minnesota, Missouri, Nebraska, North Western, Ohio Wesleyan, Pennsylvania, Princeton, Texas, Vanderbilt, Vermont, Washington, Wesleyan, Western Reserve, Wisconsin, Yale.

Inquiries were made as to the arrangements made in respect of women students at 162 Universities, and information has been received about 139. It appears that, at 100 of these, the distinctions made between men and women students are, if any, comparatively unimportant; at 7 Universities women students are admitted, by courtesy or special permission, to some lectures and examinations; at 21 others women students are by like favour admitted to some of the lectures; and at 11 Universities they are not admitted at all.

In the Universities of Wales, Scotland, Canada, Australasia, India, France, Holland, Denmark, Norway, Sweden, Switzerland (so far as the returns show), Italy, Greece, Roumania, and the great majority of those in the United States of America, women students are admitted to all or most of the educational advantages which are provided for men. In England, where they also enjoy great opportunities of academic study, the arrangements are hard to classify owing to the fact that at Oxford and Cambridge women students have been granted substantial privileges on somewhat exceptional conditions. In Germany an increasing number of Universities permit women to attend some of the courses of lectures by special permission, but little is done beyond this. There seems, however, to be a growing desire to encourage women to study, tempered by some distrust of their powers and accompanied by a firm determination not to lower the standard of academic honours. In Austria and (with the exception of Finland) in Russia the Universities offer fewer facilities for women students. It appears that in Spain women do not avail themselves to any considerable extent of the right of admission to the Universities which is granted to them by the law.

I desire to acknowledge the very valuable help which my friend Mr. J. W. Longsdon has given me in preparation of this report.

Since the inquiry was made I have seen, and have derived much assistance from, the excellent *Handbook of Courses open to Women in British, Continental, and Canadian Universities*, compiled by the Graduate Club of Bryn Mawr College and published by the Macmillan Company, New York. Reference has

also been made to the interesting article on the "Educational Status of Women in different Countries," prepared by Miss French for the Report of the United States Commissioner of Education, 1894–5 (Vol. I., pp. 893–976).

M. E. SADLER.

SUMMARY.

—	Number of Universities to which the Inquiries were addressed.	Number of Universities about which Information has been received.	Number of Universities at which no (or unimportant) Distinctions are made between Men and Women Students.	Number of Universities at which Women Students are admitted by courtesy or special permission to some Lectures and Examinations.	Number of Universities at which Women Students are admitted by courtesy or special permission to some Lectures only.	Number of Universities to which Women Students are not admitted at all.
England -	5	5	3	2	—	—
Wales - -	1	1	1	—	—	—
Scotland -	4	4	4	—	—	—
Ireland - -	3	3	1	1	—	1
Canada - -	2	5	5	—	—	—
Australasia -	5	5	5	—	—	—
India - -	5	5	5	—	—	—
France - -	16	16	16	—	—	—
Belgium -	5	5	4	—	—	1
Holland -	4	4	4	—	—	—
Denmark -	1	1	1	—	—	—
Norway -	1	1	1	—	—	—
Sweden -	2	2	2	—	—	—
Germany -	20	20	—	2	14	5
Austria - -	7	6	—	—	6	—
Switzerland -	6	5	4	1	—	—
Italy - -	20	13	13*	—	—	—
Spain - -	9	3	3	—	—	—
Portugal -	1	—	—	—	—	—
Greece - -	1	1	1	—	—	—
Roumania -	2	2	2	—	—	—
Russia, with Finland.	9	4	1	—	—	3‡
United States of America.	32	28§‖	24‖	1	1	1
Japan - -	1	—	—	—	—	—
Total -	162	139	100	7	21	11

* The same rule applies to the other Italian universities.

† In one case the position of women students seems to be more strongly differentiated than in the other two.

‡ In one of these cases women are admitted to certain medical classes.

§ One university, admitting women to one faculty only, is not classified.

‖ Three of these universities excludes women from one or more faculties.

ENGLAND.

Name of University.	Are Women admitted as Members of the University?	Are they admitted on the same Terms as Men?	Are they admitted to Lectures?	Are they admitted to Examinations?	Are they eligible for University Degrees?	Remarks.
Oxford -	No - -	No - -	Yes, by courtesy, to the lectures of about 160 professors, readers, and lecturers in the University. They are also admitted to the laboratories (other than medical) at the Museum and Christ Church and at the Botanical Gardens. No medical lectures have been opened. A few professors have refused to admit women. Women have attended lectures in all the colleges except one. Applications for admission are rarely refused, but sometimes special courses are closed. Except in the case of lectures by University professors and readers, most lectures delivered in the University Museum and a few other cases, fees are paid by women students. The names of those desiring to attend the courses are in most cases sent in through the secretary to the Association for Promoting the Education of Women in Oxford, and the fees paid through the treasurer of the association.	Yes, to all the examinations for the degrees of B.A., Bachelor and Doctor of Music, under arrangements made by the Delegates of Local Examinations, who received power to use these examinations for the examination of women by a series of statutes dating from 1884 to 1894. Candidates need not have studied at Oxford or resided there. The names of women who have obtained honours are published in supplementary class lists in the University Calendar.	No, but they are entitled to receive a certificate, signed by the examiners, for every examination passed. [A special diploma is given by the Association for the Education of Women in Oxford to those of their registered women students who, taking honours in part of the course, pass all the examinations required for the degree of Bachelor of Arts in the order and under the conditions as to standing prescribed for undergraduates, fulfilling the conditions both of residence and of examinations required by the University for the degree of Bachelor of Arts. But this diploma is given independently of the University.]	Resident women students, though enjoying by courtesy certain privileges and many of the educational advantages offered by the University to men are not officially recognised by the University. The Association for the Education of Women in Oxford (established 1878) has for its chief objects the maintenance of a system of instruction having general refererice to the Oxford examinations. The Association, on the Council of which the Hebdomadal Council of the University and the womens' colleges are represented, plays an important part in the securing educational advantages for women students, and in representing their interests in Oxford. The colleges and halls of residence for women in Oxford are as follows:— Lady Margaret Hall. Somerville College. St. Hugh's Hall. St. Hilda's Hall. There are also "home students" resident in Oxford under the official superintendence of the Association for the Education of Women in Oxford. The students of these five societies are registered on the books of the Association. Since 1877 the University Delegates of Local Examinations have been charged with the duty of arranging for and conducting the examination of women. The delegates organised a system of examinations, pass and honour, but the gradual admission

							of women to all the schools of the University has superseded all the honour examinations of the delegacy except that in modern languages. Of the two pass examinations, the first serves mainly as a preliminary examination for women who are intending to follow some University course but do not take both classical languages. The most important function of the second, now called the Higher Local Examination, is to serve as a final examination for women who do not attempt a University course. It also furnishes equivalents for some parts of the University pass examinations. (Cf. Report of Secondary Education Commission, Vol. V., p. 266.)
Cambridge	No	No	Yes, by courtesy to practically almost all the lectures of professors and readers, and they are allowed to use the University laboratories to a considerable extent. They are also allowed to attend a large number of college lectures.	Women who have fulfilled the conditions respecting length of residence and standing, which members of the University are required to fulfil, may be admitted to the Previous Examination and the Tripos Examinations (Examination for degrees in honours). Such residence shall be kept at Girton College or Newnham College or within the precincts of the University under the regulations of one or other of these colleges, or in any similar institution within the precincts of the University, which may be recognised hereafter by the University.	No, but after each examination a class list of the female students who have satisfied the examiners is published by the examiners at the same time with the class list of members of the University, the standard for each class and the method of arrangement in each class being the same in the two class lists. In each class of women students the place which each of those students would have occupied in the corresponding class of members of the University is indicated. To each woman student who satisfies the examiners in a Tripos Examination a certificate is given by the University stating, among other particulars, the class or place in the class, attained by the student in each examination.	Women students are not officially recognised as members of the University, but are admitted by courtesy to many of its educational advantages, and enjoy certain privileges as a matter of right. The colleges for women at Cambridge are:— Girton College. Newnham College. The University Higher Local Examination (established 1869) was originally open to women only. Since 1875 it has also been open to men.

England—*continued.*

Name of University.	Are Women admitted as Members of the University?	Are they admitted on the same Terms as Men?	Are they admitted to Lectures?	Are they admitted to Examinations?	Are they eligible for University Degrees?	Remarks.
London	Yes	Yes	This is an examining, but not a teaching, University.	Yes	Yes	No distinction between men and women.
Durham	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes, those in divinity alone excepted.	A Charter, granted in May 1895, gave to the University the power of conferring on women the degrees which it can grant to men, those in divinity alone excepted. Many women students are in residence at the Durham University College of Medicine, Newcastle-on-Tyne, and at the Durham College of Science, Newcastle-on-Tyne. There is a University hostel for women students at Newcastle.
Victoria	Yes	Yes — By its Charter, 1880, and Supplemental Charter, 1883, the University has power to grant degrees on men and women who have pursued a regular course of study in a college in the University. In practice, therefore, the admission of women to University examinations depend on the action of the constituent colleges of the University, viz., Owens College, Manchester, University College, Liverpool, and the Yorkshire College, Leeds.	There are no University lectures independently of the colleges.	Yes. (*See* column 3)	Yes — The University also awards certificates of proficiency, for women students of one of the constituent colleges of the University, in a number of subjects, the standard of the paper in each subject being that of the Final Examination for the ordinary B.A. or B.Sc. degree.	At *Owens College* certain junior classes are held separately for women. These are open to any woman over 16. A much larger number of classes are open to men and women who have passed the Victoria University Preliminary Examination, or have given some other evidence of fitness. Practically in arts and science women students have all the facilities they require. The medical school is not open to women. At *University College, Liverpool*, women students are admitted, together with men students, to all classes and lectures in the arts and science department of the college, but not to medical courses, and are allowed exactly the same facilities (with the above exception) to train for all degrees granted by the Victoria University. At the *Yorkshire College, Leeds*, all the classes are open to women as to men, and all the classes of the college have been attended by women, except the purely professional one in the medical school, to which women have not yet applied for admission, although they have attended the classes in physiology there.

WALES.

University of Wales.	Yes - -	Yes - -	The teaching is provided by the constituent colleges of the University.	All - - - - -	All - - - -	By the Charter of the University, 1893, it is provided that "women "shall be eligible equally with men "for admittance to any degree "which the University is authorised "to confer. Every office hereby "created in the University, and the "membership of every authority "hereby constituted, shall be open "to women equally with men."

The constituent colleges of the University of Wales are:—
(i.) The University College of Wales, Aberystwith.
(ii.) The University College of North Wales, Bangor.
(iii.) The University College of South Wales and Monmouthshire, Cardiff.

In the University College of Wales, Aberystwith, all lectures are open to women on the same terms as men. In the science department the laboratories are open to women, but in the department of zoology a separate laboratory is provided for women students. All women students not residing with their parents or guardians in Aberystwith are required to reside in the Hall of Residence (Alexandra Hall).

In the University College of North Wales, Bangor, all the classes and other privileges of the college are open to women on the same terms as to men. In practical biology separate instruction is given to men and women. A college officer, the lady superintendent of women students, exercises a general supervision over all women students. This lady is also superintendent of the women's hostel, in which, or in lodgings licensed by a committee of the college council, women students must reside.

In the University College of South Wales and Monmouthshire, Cardiff, all the classes are open to both men and women students. Women students not residing with their parents or guardians are required to reside at Aberdare Hall, or at some other institution approved by the council.

SCOTLAND.

The Universities' (Scotland) Act, 1889, empowered the Commissioners appointed under it to make ordinances, *inter alia*, "to enable each University to admit women to graduation in one or more faculties, and to provide for their "instruction."

Scotland—*continued.*

Name of University.	Are Women admitted as Members of the University?	Are they admitted on the same Terms as Men?	Are they admitted to Lectures?	Are they admitted to Examinations?	Are they eligible for University Degrees?	Remarks.
Edinburgh	Yes	Yes, with temporary differences in the regulations, to the Faculties of Arts, Science, and Medicine.	Yes, to nearly all classes in the Faculty of Arts and in the Faculty of Science, but only the class of physics in the Faculty of Medicine. They are also admitted to the classes in the Faculty of Music.	Yes, to examinations for degrees in the Faculties of Arts, Science, and Music.	Yes, in the Faculties of Arts, Science, and Medicine.	"It is within the power of the University Court to admit women to graduation."—(Extract from ordinances of the University.) Until provision is made within the University for the instruction of women in any subject qualifying for graduation in medicine, women may receive instruction in recognised Universities or medical schools elsewhere, and graduate at Edinburgh University, provided that they are examined in all the subjects necessary for graduation by the examiners of the University. A similar regulation is in force respecting degrees in science. Crudelius House and Crudelius Hall are halls of residence for women students.
Aberdeen	Yes	Yes, women stand practically in the same position as men.	Yes, to all In Faculties of— Arts, Law, Divinity, Science, } 1892 and of Medicine, 1896. (Separate practical instruction is provided for women in anatomy and midwifery. Some lectures in materia medica and forensic medicine are given separately. Women are excluded from limited parts of course on surgery.)	Yes	Yes	On July 12, 1892, the University Court resolved to sanction the admission of women to graduation in all the Faculties of the University. On July 9, 1895, the University Court, on the recommendation of the Senators, resolved that all open bursaries, which have taken effect prior to 30th August 1864, should be offered for competition without restriction as to sex. The Senators, which is the body charged with the duty of superintendence of all students, has remitted this duty in the case of women students to one of its standing committees, and has been recommended "to consider the question of organising "residential arrangements in town, under proper superintendence, for ladies studying at the University." No steps, however, have as yet been taken in the matter.

St. Andrews	Yes	.	Yes, except that they are not allowed to compete for certain bursaries and scholarships.	Yes	Yes, in arts, science, and medicine.	Yes, in Arts (M.A.), Science (B.Sc. and D.Sc.), and Medicine (M.B., Ch.B., M.D., and Ch.M.)	The University also grants a certificate (in pass and honours), with the title of L.L.A., to women who pass a special examination. There is a hall of residence for women students built by the University on its own grounds.
Glasgow	Yes	.	Yes, except that— (1.) No arrangements are made for instruction in law or divinity. (2.) They are not admitted to competition for bursaries founded since 1860; for those founded before that date they compete on the same terms as men, though in practice the conditions of particular bursaries, *e.g.*, those intended for students preparing for the ministry, sometimes exclude them.	Yes, in all the subjects of the Medical Faculty, and in most of the subjects of the Arts Faculty (an amply sufficient number to qualify for graduation), and of the Science Faculty so far as a B.Sc. in pass science is concerned. There are separate classes for women in the subjects of the Medical Faculty, and in several (though not all) of the subjects of the Arts Faculty. The separation does not always depend on the nature of the subject, *e.g.*, mathematics are taught separately to men and women, whereas the classes in clinical surgery are mixed.	Yes, in arts, science, and medicine.		Women do not become members of the General Council of M.A.'s.

IRELAND.

Name of University.	Are Women admitted as Members of the University?	Are they admitted on the same Terms as Men?	Are they admitted to Lectures?	Are they admitted to Examinations?	Are they eligible for University Degrees?	Remarks.
Trinity College, Dublin.	No	No	Several courses of lectures (*e.g.*, courses on English literature, ecclesiastical history and music) by professors of the University are open to the public (including women) without payment of fees.	Special examinations for women, outside the course for students of the college, were established about 25 years ago, and are still continued. (*See also* last column for present experimental arrangements respecting honour examinations for women.)	No	In 1895 it was resolved to admit women to certain honour examinations of the undergraduate course as an experiment for three years (1896-8). Women who have taken a senior or junior certificate may be examined in the same honour courses as senior freshmen. Those having a senior certificate may be examined for moderatorships. In these examinations the marking and classification is the same for women as for men, but the examinations are held in different rooms. Special certificates will be given to those who pass a successful examination.
Royal University of Ireland.	Yes	Yes	There are no lectures	Yes	Yes	All degrees, honours, exhibitions, prizes, scholarships, studentships, and junior fellowships are open to students of either sex.
Catholic University of Ireland.	Provision is made for the education of women students in connexion with this University, at St. Mary's University College, Dublin, and Loretto High School for Girls, Dublin.	Degrees are taken in the Royal University of Ireland. (*See* above.)	*See* second column. Arrangements are being made for the admission of women students to the medical school, but the University authorities are hampered by want of sufficient accommodation.	The students of this University, which is not recognised by the State, enter for the examinations of the Royal University of Ireland. (*See* above.)	*See* previous column.	—

Canada.

New Brunswick, University of.	Yes - -	Yes - -	Yes - - - -	Yes - - - -	Yes.	—
Dalhousie University (Halifax).	Yes - -	Yes - -	Yes - - - -	Yes - - - -	Yes.	—
McGill University, Montreal.	Yes - -	Yes - - They enjoy the same privileges as men with regard to classing, honours, prizes, and medals. The education of women is provided for by a separate endowment.	Yes (but *see* last column) -	Yes - - - - The examinations for women are identical with those for men.	Yes - - - - B.A., M.A., LL.D.; women have all privileges conferred by these degrees except that of being elected Fellow.	The classes for women (under the Donalda Endowment), though given by the University professors and lecturers, are wholly separate from those for men, except those for candidates for honours (including most of the additional courses in the third and fourth years).
Queen's College and University (Kingston).	Yes - -	Yes - -	Yes - - - -	Yes - - - -	Yes.	—
Toronto	Yes - -	No advantage is granted to men which is not open to women.	Yes - - - -	Yes - - - -	Yes - - - -	"Since 1885 the University has known no difference between the men and women students." "Women have their own apartments and certain portions of class & library reading rooms assigned to them."

AUSTRALASIA.

Name of University.	Are Women admitted as Members of the University?	Are they Admitted on the same Terms as Men?	Are they admitted to Lectures?	Are they admitted to Examinations?	Are they eligible for University Degrees?	Remarks.
Sydney	Yes	Yes	All classes are attended by men and women without distinction.	Yes	Yes	The University Extension Act of 1884 provided that "the benefits and "advantages of the University and "the provisions of the Acts relating "thereto shall be deemed to extend "in all respects to women equally "with men."
Melbourne	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	The Act of incorporation applies to both sexes, but women cannot become members of Council or of the Senate. The Council has power to exclude women students from any lectures. This power, however, has not been exercised. Women attend lectures on arts, science, and medicine. No woman has so far sought admission to lectures on law or engineering. The Registrar writes that "the experience of this University has shown "that women students are as capable "as the men students of availing "themselves of the privileges of a "University education."

Australasia—*continued.*

University of New Zealand (Wellington).	Yes - -	Yes - -	No distinction in any respect between men and women - - - - -			The Registrar writes:—"It is believed "that this University, when it was "established in 1870, was the first in "the British Empire to make abso- "lutely no distinction between men "and women in academical matters. "Neither in the Act of Parliament "which established the University, "nor in Her Majesty's Charters, nor "in the Statutes of the University "Senate has any such distinction "ever been made. Women students "pass the ordinary matriculation "examination, compete for scholar- "ships and prizes, attend lectures, "and go through the University "course on exactly the same terms "as men students. No distinctions "whatever are made in either arts, "science, law, medicine, or music. "The diploma of any degree is "granted to women as to men with- "out any difference in wording or in "value. . . . This system of ad- "mission of women has been from "the first entirely successful, and "highly appreciated by all classes of "the people. No inconvenience or "trouble of any kind has been found "to result from it."

NOTE.—No replies have been received from the University of Adelaide and the University of Tasmania, but it appears that at these, as at the other Australasian Universities, women students are admitted on the same conditions as men. (Coghlan, The Seven Colonies of Australasia, 1895-96, page 76.)

INDIA.

Madras -	Yes - -	Yes - -	- - - - -	Yes - - - -	Yes - - - -	No distinction made between men and women.

INDIA—*continued.*

Name of University.	Are Women admitted as Members of the University?	Are they admitted on the same Terms as Men?	Are they admitted to Lectures?	Are they admitted to Examinations?	Are they eligible for University Degrees?	Remarks.
Allahabad	Yes	Yes, with minor differences.		Yes	Yes	Women may be admitted to the Intermediate Examination in Arts and the B.A. Examination without the condition of studying in an affiliated institution. They are examined separately from men and under special superintendence, and there are small differences in choice of subjects. There is a "Woman's College" at Lucknow, which is affiliated to the University in the category of institutions "up to the B.A. standard." As a fact women students generally prefer to pursue their courses of studies in colleges affiliated to the University.
Punjab University, Lahore.	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	No distinction.
Calcutta	Yes	Yes. Women students are admitted to the examinations of the University on the same terms as men.		Yes	Yes	Female students are required to undergo the same course of instructions as that provided for men. There are no female members in the Senate of the University. The scholarships and prizes of the University are open to women on the same terms as to men students. There are also special scholarships and prizes for women only.
Bombay	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes.	—

FRANCE.

Le Directeur de l'enseignement supérieur writes as follows:—

"1. Women are admitted as students in the French Universities.
2. The conditions of their admission are the same as for men.
3. Women are admitted to the lectures and examinations.
4. They are eligible for the diplomas conferred on men students."

[NOTE.—The form which, since the time of Napoleon I., University organisation has till quite recently taken in France makes it unnecessary to give more than the above general statement, which applies to the whole country. But it is now the policy of the French Government to reconstitute the old independent centres of University life, and to recognise them as separate universities with a certain measure of self-government. Thus, in November last, the name of the University of Paris was revived after a century's disuse, and five metropolitan faculties, which had hitherto formed part of the University of France, were re-invested with a certain degree of independence, under the historic title of the University of Paris. This is the outcome of a long series of efforts, extending over more than twenty years, for the gradual liberation of the Faculties in different parts of France from the centralised administration created by the First Empire in place of the old Universities, the intellectual decay of which had led to their suppression by the Revolution.

By the Law of July 10, 1896, the corps de facultés received the name of Universities. They are as follows:—Aix, Besançon, Bordeaux, Caen, Clermont, Dijon, Grenoble, Lille, Lyon, Marseilles, Montpellier, Nancy, Paris, Poitiers, Rennes, and Toulouse.]

BELGIUM.

Name of University.	Are Women admitted as Members of the University?	Are they admitted on the same Terms as Men?	Are they admitted to Lectures?	Are they admitted to Examinations?	Are they eligible for University Degrees?	Remarks.
L'Université libre de Bruxelles.	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Statutory equality for men and women.
Université Nouvelle, Bruxelles.	Yes	Yes, in principle.	Yes	Yes	Yes. Degrees, if they conform to the conditions laid down by the law. In other cases they may claim special diplomas.	—
Liége	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes.	—

BELGIUM—*continued.*

Name of University.	Are Women admitted as Members of the University?	Are they admitted on the same Terms as Men?	Are they admitted to Lectures?	Are they admitted to Examinations?	Are they eligible for University Degrees?	Remarks.
Université Catholique, Louvain.	No.	—	—	—	—	—
Gand	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	No distinction.
HOLLAND.						
Utrecht	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes.	—
Leiden	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes.	—
Gröningen	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes.	—
Amsterdam	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	The statistics show that the number of women students is steadily increasing.
DENMARK.						
Copenhagen	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Women who have the necessary qualifications are treated just as men.
NORWAY.						
Christiania	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	No statutory difference.

SWEDEN.

Upsala	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes, except in theology and the final Law Examination.	Yes, with the exceptions named in previous column.	On one occasion permission was given to a woman to pass the final Law Examination ("juris—licentiat—examen").
Lund	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes, except in theology	Yes, but they cannot obtain appointments in the Legal Faculty.	—

GERMANY.

Berlin	Only under certain conditions to attend lectures.	No, they cannot be matriculated.	Yes, the Rector may allow them to do so provided that— (1.) They are qualified by previous education. (2.) The professor is willing to admit them.	No	No	Women may receive a certificate of having attended lectures.
Bonn	No, they cannot be matriculated.	No	Yes, by leave of the individual professors and of the curator they may receive from the Rector a certificate entitling them to attend lectures, but not those of the Faculty of Catholic Theology.	No	No	The Medical Faculty would make admission to examinations dependent on the consent of the Minister. It would grant degrees to women if they had fulfilled all conditions prescribed in the statutes. In the Faculties of Law and Catholic Theology admission to degrees is refused. The Faculties of Protestant Theology and Philosophy have had no occasion to raise the question.

GERMANY—*continued.*

Name of University.	Are Women admitted as Members of the University?	Are they admitted on the same Terms as Men?	Are they admitted to Lectures?	Are they admitted to Examinations?	Are they eligible for University Degrees?	Remarks.
Breslau	No		To a few lectures by special permission.	No	No	The Rector writes that the permission to attend lectures is by favour only, and carries with it no claim to admission to examination or to degrees.
Erlangen	There are no regulations on the subject, but practically no.				Practically no	Women can only be admitted by special permission of the Department for Public Instruction at Munich.
Freiberg	No, they cannot be matriculated.	No	Yes, with the consent of the professor.			Degrees have been granted in two cases by the Philosophical Faculty.
Giessen	No					Not contemplated in Statutes. No demand has been made.
Göttingen	No	No	Yes, by leave of the Curator and after a satisfactory examination by one of the professors whose lectures they wish to attend.	Yes	Yes	Many women are availing themselves of the permission to attend certain courses.
Greifswald	Under certain conditions they may be admitted to attend lectures only.	No	By special permission of the Curator of the University and of the professor giving the course, and providing they are qualified by previous education.	No	No.	—

Halle a/S.	No	—	Yes	No	No	Permission has been lately given to women to attend lectures, and may soon be extended to admit them to examinations and degrees.
Heidelberg	They are admitted, but not matriculated.	No, they are admitted only as a matter of courtesy.	Yes, in philosophy, science, and mathematics.	Yes	Yes, but for the degree in science the candidate must have studied in Heidelberg.	Six women have taken doctor's degree.
Jena	No	—	No	No	No	It has recently been unofficially announced that it is contemplated to open the examination for the doctor's degree in the Philosophical Faculty to women this year.
Kiel	No	—	Only in exceptional cases, with special permission.	No	No	Women students may be recognised as hospitantinnen.
Königsberg	No	—	Yes	No	No	Permission for women to attend lectures was first given in 1896. The Rector writes:—"It is probable "that in the near future reforms of "considerable importance will be "considered."
Leipzig	No	—	Occasionally with permission.	—	Practically no, but it depends on the decision of the different faculties. A woman student graduated in law some years ago. The doctor's degree has been refused to women in the Medical and Philosophical Faculties.	By the Ordinance of the Department of Public Instruction of the Kingdom of Saxony (December 20, 1879) women may only attend lectures in the University if they have special permission from the Department.
Marburg in Hessen.	Under certain conditions they may be admitted to hear lectures.	No, they are not matriculated.	Permission may be given for them to do so, provided that— (1.) They are qualified by previous education. (2.) The professor is willing to admit them.	None have been admitted, but there appears to be no legal obstacle.	Practically no, but, though the doctor's degree has not been taken by a woman, there is no law against their doing so.	—
Munich	No	—	To lectures in special cases with special permission of Minister, University authorities, and lecturer, but the arrangement is quite exceptional.	No	No.	—

Germany—*continued.*

Name of University.	Are Women admitted as Members of the University?	Are they admitted on the same Terms as Men?	Are they admitted to Lectures?	Are they admitted to Examinations?	Are they eligible for University Degrees?	Remarks.
Rostock	No	. . .	Women teachers and women who are preparing themselves for the teaching profession may receive, from the Rector and the professor giving the course, special permission to attend lectures.	No	No.	—
Strassburg	No	. . .	. . . . .	No	No.	—
Tübingen	No	. . .	No	No	No	A woman student (not a foreigner) was once allowed to attend lectures, and afterwards to proceed to the degree of Doctor in the Faculty of Natural Science. This single exception shows that the University authorities have the right to admit women if they like to do so.
Würsburg	Only in special cases (and with permission from the Ministry) to attend lectures.	No . .	Yes, to occasional courses by special permission.	No	No	Permission to attend lectures is rarely given.
AUSTRIA.						
Cracow	No	No . .	They may be admitted under special conditions.	No	No.	IN ALL AUSTRIAN UNIVERSITIES— 1. Women are not admitted as members of the University (1877). 2. Women may be admitted in rare cases to a course of lectures, but have no right to the admission (1878). 3. Austrian women with a foreign medical degree may be admitted to study medicine (19th March 1896).
Graz	No	No . .	They may be admitted under special conditions.	No	No.	
Innsbrück	No	No . .	They may be admitted under special conditions.	—	—	
Lemberg	No	No . .	They may be admitted under special conditions.	No	No.	
Prague	No	No . .	They may be admitted under special conditions.	No	No.	
Vienna	No	No . .	They may be admitted under special conditions.	No	No.	

SWITZERLAND.				
Basel	Yes	Provided that they are— (*a.*) Swiss; or (*b.*) Foreigners educated in Canton of Basel-stadt, and that they are qualified to undertake University studies.	Yes	Yes.	—
Bern	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Women students have been admitted since 1873.
Geneva	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Two women are privat-dozenten (unsalaried members of the University staff).
Zürich	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes.	—
Fribourg	No	No	Yes	Yes, in faculty of Philosophy	Yes, in faculty of Philosophy.	—
ITALY.					
Bologna	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	A lady is assistant to the Professor of Zoology, and a few years ago another lady was assistant to the Professor of General Pathology.
Genoa	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes.	
Modena	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes.	
Naples	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes.	[The University law of Italy (1890) provides that women shall be admitted to the Universities on the same conditions as men. This enactment applies to all the Royal Universities of Italy.]
Padua	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes.	
Pavia	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes.	
Perugia	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes.	
Rome	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes.	

Italy—*continued.*

Name of University.	Are Women admitted as Members of the University?	Are they admitted on the same Terms as Men?	Are they admitted to Lectures?	Are they admitted to Examinations?	Are they eligible for University Degrees?	Remarks.
Siena	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes.	
Turin	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes.	
Urbino Free University.	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	A free University, which has adopted the State regulations in respect of the admission of women students.
SICILY.						
Messina	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes.	—
SARDINIA.						
Cagliari	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	In 1896, for the first time, a woman student was admitted to the first course in the medical school.
SPAIN.						
Granada	Yes	Yes, they can be.	Yes	Yes	Yes	There are two systems of instruction at the University of Granada—the official and the free. The students of both systems undergo the same examinations.

						The Royal Ordinance of July 11, 1888, gives women the right of admission to studies, which are under the general direction of the Department of Public Instruction, as students under private tuition. If women desire to be reckoned among the students receiving official instruction they must apply to the Department, which will decide on the merits of the particular case. Two women students have taken the course of Pharmacy at the University, one as an "official" student, the other as a private student.
Barcelona .	Yes . .	Yes . .	Yes	Yes	Yes.	—
Salamanca .	They have the right to attend the University as students, but it is not customary.	No, women are not admissible as members of, or as an integral part of, the colleges.	Not to all . . .	Yes	Yes	The Secretary writes as follows:— "Women are not admissible as members, or as an integral part of the University colleges. "They are not admissible to the University Academies; nor, as members of the Tribunal, to the examinations of the teaching centres of the same. "They have the right to the diplomas which are issued by the Ministry of Public Works at the conclusion of the professional career, as an honorary distinction, but without powers to practise the professions. "As an exception, they are authorised to practise as assistants to the doctor or professor in midwifery. "On this understanding the female Directors of the Normal School of female teachers were authorised, a short time ago, to form part of the University Councils of the district. "Briefly, they have the right to attend the Universities as students, but it is not customary."

GREECE.

Name of University.	Are Women admitted as Members of the University?	Are they admitted on the same Terms as Men?	Are they admitted to Lectures?	Are they admitted to Examinations?	Are they eligible for University Degrees?	Remarks.
Athens	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	The Rector writes:— "No law or decree has been passed expressly authorising the admission of women to the courses and degrees of the University, but five years ago two girls from Cephalonia presented the proper certificates from a gymnasium, and were allowed by the Dean of the Faculty of Medicine to enter the University course. Their diligence overcame opposition, and after three years they obtained a first class in the general examination. At the end of 1896 they obtained the degree of Doctor of Medicine, and are now preparing for the State examination. Six women students have since entered the University, two in the Faculty of Medicine, and one each in Pharmacy, Philosophy, Mathematics, and Physical Science."

ROUMANIA.

Iasi	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	In the Roumanian Universities women who hold the diploma of "baccalauréat ès lettres" or "ès sciences" are admitted, like men, to all academic privileges.
Bucharest (Bucuresti).	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Two women students (licenciées-ès-lettres) gained University prizes in 1896.

RUSSIA.

Odessa	No	No	No	No	No.	—

St. Petersburg	No	No	No	No	A special institution for women, "Les Cours des Hautes Études," and a medicine school are about to be founded.
Kharkof	No	No	No (with the exception named in last column).	Yes, to the University examinations for diplomas in midwifery, dentistry, and pharmacy.	Women are admitted to lectures at the Institute of Medicine after showing proof of certain preliminary studies. Twelve women students are annually admitted to the Institute des sages-femmes (Faculty of Medicine).
FINLAND.					
Helsingfors	Yes	Yes, after examination.	Yes	Yes	Women were first admitted in 1870.
UNITED STATES OF AMERICA.					
Brown University, Providence.	Yes	Yes	Yes, in the graduate course; in the undergraduate course instruction is given in a separate college.	Yes	No distinction between women and men B.A.'s proceeding to higher degrees. A women's college is almost completed.
California (State University of).	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes. —
Chicago	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes. —
Clark University (Worcester, Mass.).	They are not matriculated. (For special admission of women see other columns.)	No	By special consent of the lecturer or director of the course women may be admitted to lectures and laboratories.		No. Women are only given an informal statement by the President of what they have done at the University. The names of women students do not appear in the Calendar, nor are they eligible for scholarships or fellowships.
Colorado (University of), Boulder, Col.	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes. —

United States of America—*continued.*

Name of University.	Are Women admitted as Members of the University?	Are they admitted on the same Terms as Men?	Are they admitted to Lectures?	Are they admitted to Examinations?	Are they eligible for University Degrees?	Remarks.
Columbia University in the City of New York.	Yes	Yes, but women must register through Barnard College, which is in close affiliation with Columbia.	Yes, and women who are not registered as students are admitted to certain lectures on payment of a special fee.	Yes	Yes	Women merely attending lectures as auditors receive no University recognition.
Columbian University (Washington, D.C.).	Yes, with limitations.	Yes, to the college, the scientific school, and the graduate school, but not to the professional schools.	Yes, in the departments mentioned in previous column.	Yes, in the departments mentioned in the previous column.	Yes.	—
Cornell University.	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Women have exactly the same advantages, and are subject to the same regulations as men students.
[Harvard University], Radcliffe College, Harvard, Mass. (the women's section of Harvard University).	Yes	The admission examinations are identical with those of Harvard College.	Competent students at Radcliffe College are admitted to the courses, intended primarily for graduates, in the Harvard class-rooms. Other courses of instruction are repeated in the Radcliffe College class-rooms by the Harvard College instructors.	In almost all cases the examination papers are the same for Radcliffe and Harvard Colleges. When a course is given at Radcliffe College in a year during which it is omitted at Harvard, a special paper is set for Radcliffe College students. There are occasionally other exceptions.	The diplomas of Radcliffe College are signed by the Presidents of Harvard and of Radcliffe.	Radcliffe College (formerly the Society for the Collegiate Instruction of Women) is a department for women students in close relation to Harvard College.

Indiana, University of (Bloomington, Ind.).	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	—
Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore.	No, except to the medical department.	In medical department, yes.	In medical department	In medical department	—
Leland Stanford, Jr., University (California).	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	—
Michigan (University of), (Ann Arbor).	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	The President writes:— "We have found no serious trouble in administering this system by which women are placed upon an exact equality with men in respect all the privileges and duties of the University. . . . The way was thoroughly prepared in Michigan for the admission of women to all the privileges of the University by the long established usage of teaching boys and girls together in the public schools of the State, which are the chief preparatory schools for the University. . . . The students, both men and women, live in private families in the city. . . . Women have shown themselves capable of doing the work in every department of study. I may say that, as a large majority of the teachers in our schools are women, the benefits to the cause of general education which have flowed from opening this opportunity of higher education to women, have been very marked."
Minnesota (University of), Minneapolis.	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	The only distinction is that during the first year of the course men take military drill and women physical culture.

United States of America—*continued.*

Name of University.	Are Women admitted as Members of the University?	Are they admitted on the same Terms as Men?	Are they admitted to Lectures?	Are they admitted to Examinations?	Are they eligible for University Degrees?	Remarks.
Missouri (University of the State of), Columbia.	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	The President writes:— "The University of Missouri was the first University in America to admit women on the same conditions as men. The University of Michigan contends for this honour also, but we think that it belongs to us. Most of the women students board wherever they please in the town. The University assumes no responsibility for either men or women except to provide instruction. . . . We have little trouble with the discipline of men, and none whatsoever with that of women. . . . I have been President here for five years, and in that time have not had any misconduct reported to me on the part of any woman connected with the University, except in two cases. In both of these cases the fault was unwillingness to attend lectures which had become disagreeable. I have rarely seen a man in this country who did not oppose co-education in the University until he had actually made trial of it himself; then they are all converted—*all*."
Nebraska (University of), Lincoln.	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	The Chancellor writes:— "In this University co-education has passed beyond the experimental stage. Intellectually and morally we have discovered no evils attendant upon the system."
North-Western University (Evanston, Illinois).	Yes	Yes, but women are required to live in a special building.	Yes, except that women studying medicine receive separate instruction.	Yes	Yes	The University has made special arrangements for the residential accommodation of women.

Ohio Wesleyan University (Delaware, Ohio).	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes.	—
Pennsylvania (University of), Philadelphia).	Yes, with limitations.	Yes, to the department of philosophy in any course for the M.A. and Ph.D. degrees. Also to certain other courses (*see* next column).	Yes, in the department of philosophy also to the undergraduate, or college, department in the course of biology leading to the degree of B.Sc. in Biology. They are also admitted to special courses in biology and so leading to a certificate of study. They have been sometimes admitted as "partial students" to laboratory courses, *e.g.*, chemistry.	Yes, to those mentioned in previous columns.	M.A., Ph.D., B.Sc. in Biology	The University has also arranged a special series of "Teachers' Courses," to which women are admitted on the same terms as men. Their work in these courses does not lead to a degree. Women are not admitted to either lectures or examinations unless matriculated in the courses named in the previous columns. So far as the University admits women to the same work as men, it confers on them the same degrees. Women admitted to the department of philosophy or to the course in biology as "regular students" may take degrees in those subjects, or receive a certificate when a special course is completed.
Princeton University (Princeton, N.J.).	No	No	No	No	No.	—
Texas (University of), (Austin, Texas).	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes.	—
Vanderbilt University (Nashville, Tennessee).	No, except by courtesy.	Women students are admitted by courtesy only, but on admission are required to undergo the same work, examinations, &c.	—	—	—	—

United States of America—*continued.*

Name of University.	Are Women admitted as Members of the University?	Are they admitted on the same Terms as Men?	Are they admitted to Lectures?	Are they admitted to Examinations?	Are they eligible for University Degrees?	Remarks.
Vermont (University of), Burlington, Vermont.	Yes, to departments of arts and sciences. They are not admitted to the medical department.	Yes, except that they are not enrolled in the military organisation.	Yes, in departments specified in second column.	Yes, in departments specified in second column.	Yes, to degrees of B.A., M.A., and B.Ph.	Women are not by statute excluded from the technical departments (engineering and agriculture), but none have sought admission.
Washington University (St. Louis, Mo.).	Yes, except to the medical department.	Yes - -	Yes - - - - -	Yes - - - - -	Yes - - - - -	The Chancellor writes:— "After many years' experience we find no reason for making a change in our regulations."
Wesleyan University (Middletown, Conn.).	Yes - -	Yes - -	Yes - - - - -	Yes - - - - -	Yes.	—
Western Reserve University (Cleveland, Ohio). The College for Women, Cleveland.	Women are admitted to the College for Women, which is a part of the University, Western Reserve.	They are admitted to the special college of the University reserved for their use.	Yes (*see* last column) -	Yes - - - - -	Yes - - - - -	The official circular states that:— "The college for women has the advantages of separate education since its students are free from constant association with young men in class-rooms and lecture halls. It has the advantages of co-education since its proximity to Adelbert College, a part of the same University, necessitates a common standard. The policy is that each college, having a full faculty, is to receive the benefit of the instruction and of association with the professors of the other. The method is not the annex system, since the degrees are conferred by the University of which the college is an integral part. It may be called co-ordination in education."

Wisconsin, University of (Madison).	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	There is a hall of residence in which a number of the women students reside. Women students are also required to comply with certain house rules.
Yale University (New Haven, Conn.).	Not as a rule, but the women who have already received elsewhere a degree corresponding with the Yale B.A. are admitted as candidates for the degree of Ph.D. Women are admitted to the school of fine arts, and to the department of music.	Women who have graduated B.A. elsewhere are admitted as candidates for Ph.D. on same terms as men. Women are admitted to the school of fine arts and department of music on same terms as men.	Yes, for degree of Ph.D. (provided candidate has obtained degree of B.A. elsewhere), and to the lecture of departments of fine art and music.	Yes, in departments of music and fine arts, and (on condition shown in previous columns) to examination for degree of Ph.D.	Yes, for degrees of Bachelor of Fine Arts and Bachelor of Music, and (if they have already received elsewhere a degree corresponding to the Yale B.A.) for the degree of Ph.D.	—
The University of the State of New York.	This is the administrative State department in charge of the higher education, *i.e.*, everything above the elementary schools, in the State of New York. It is not a University in the ordinary sense of the word. But in all its examinations, academic, higher, professional and technical, no distinction is made between men and women. The same applies to the library school.					

NOTE.—Vassar College (near Poughkeepsie, N.Y.), Wellesley College (Wellesley, Mass.), Brynmawr College (near Philadelphia), and Smith College may be specially named among those institutions for the higher education of women, which are not strictly Universities. They are open to women only. By the Charter of the first-named, "The College may "grant to students under its charge diplomas or honorary testimonials, in such form as it may designate. It may also grant and confer such honours, degrees, and diplomas as are "granted by any University, College, or Seminary of Learning in the United States"; and the Charter of Wellesley College provides that, "the Corporation of Wellesley College is "authorised to grant such honorary testimonials, and to confer such honours, degrees, and diplomas as are granted or conferred by any University, College, or Seminary of "Learning in this Commonwealth (Massachusetts), and the diplomas so granted shall entitle the possessors to the immunities or privileges allowed by usage or statute to the "possessors of like diplomas from any University, College, or Seminary of Learning in this Commonwealth."
Smith College and Brynmawr College are also empowered to grant degrees.

APPENDIX.

List of the Chief Official Publications on Education in Great Britain and Ireland.

	Price.	With Postage.
	s. d.	*s. d.*
[It is believed that a brief list of some of the most important official publications on education in Great Britain and Ireland may be found useful for reference by some readers of this volume. The papers named below can be purchased, either directly or through any bookseller, from Messrs. Eyre and Spottiswoode, East Harding Street, Fleet Street, London, E.C., and 32, Abingdon Street, Westminster, London, S.W.; or from Messrs. John Menzies & Co., 12, Hanover Street, Edinburgh, and 90, West Nile Street, Glasgow; or from Messrs. Hodges, Figgis, & Co., Limited, 104, Grafton Street, Dublin. The letters o.p. are affixed to the titles of those papers which are no longer in print. The cost of the different papers are given, but it should be understood that the prices of the annual reports vary somewhat from year to year according to the size of the volumes.]		
I.—Elementary Education.		
(i.) The Annual Report of the Committee of Council on Education (England and Wales), with Appendix. [This annual volume contains the Report of the Education Department; Statistical Tables; the Day School Code; the Revised Instructions to Her Majesty's Inspectors; the Evening Continuation School Code; the General Reports of Chief Inspectors; Reports on Training Colleges, &c.] Report for 1895–96 - - -	2 10	3 4
The following sections of the volume can be obtained separately :—		
(*a.*) Report of the Committee of Council on Education (England and Wales). 1896–97 - -	0 7½	0 10
(*b.*) Statistical Tables in the form of a "Return showing Expenditure "upon Annual Grant Schools "and Results of Inspection, &c."	0 3	0 4
(*c.*) Code of Regulations for Public Elementary Day Schools (with the standard of examination, courses of study, curriculum for pupil-teachers, &c.) - -	0 5½	0 7

	Price.	With Postage.
	s. d.	*s. d.*
(*d.*) Revised Instructions to Her Majesty's Inspectors (in respect of the inspection and examination of schools, kindergarten methods, object teaching, &c.) - -	0 5	0 6½
(*e.*) Code of Regulations for Evening Continuation Schools, with outlines of courses of study - -	0 4	0 5
(*f.*) Reports on Training Colleges -	0 9	1 0
(*g.*) Reports of Her Majesty's Chief Inspectors of Schools. Various.	—	—
(ii.) The Elementary Education Acts (England and Wales):—		
1870 - - - - -	1 6	1 7
1873 - - - - -	0 6	0 6½
1876 - - - - -	1 0	1 1
1880 - - - - -	0 1½	0 2
1890 - - - - -	0 0½	0 1
1891 - - - - -	0 1	0 1½
1893 (Blind and Deaf Children) - -	0 1	0 1½
1893 (School Attendance) - -	0 0½	0 1
1897 - - - - -	0 0½	0 1
1897 (Voluntary Schools Act) - -	0 0½	0 1
(iii.) Annual List of Public Elementary Schools (England and Wales) in receipt of Parliamentary Grants; Grants paid to School Boards under Section 97 of the Elementary Education Act, 1870; School Board Accounts and List of Loans. List for 1895–96 - - - - -	2 2	2 6½
(iv.) List of School Boards and School Attendance Committees (England and Wales) - -	0 9	0 11½
(v.) Rules to be observed in planning and fitting up Public Elementary Schools (England and Wales) - - - - -	0 3	0 3½
(vi.) Revised Regulations of the 7th June 1894 as to Certificates of Age, Proficiency, and School Attendance (England and Wales) -	0 0½	0 1
(vii.) Return of provision made by each School Board in England and Wales respecting religious teaching and religious observance in Board Schools. 1895 - - -	5 2	5 9½
(viii.) Report of the Departmental Committee on the Superannuation of Teachers in Public Elementary Schools (England and Wales). 1895 - - - - -	0 3½	0 4½
(ix.) Report of Committee on the Pupil-Teacher System in England and Wales. (Will appear shortly.)	—	—
(x.) Annual Report of the Committee of Council on Education in Scotland. [This annual volume contains the Report of the Committee of Council; the Code of the Scotch Education Department; the Scotch Evening Continuation School Code; Report on Leaving Certificate and Inspection of Higher Class Schools, with Examination Papers; Statistical Tables on Scotch Education; Inspectors' General Reports; Regulations for Queen's Scholarship and Studentship Examination, &c.] Report for 1895–96 - - -	2 6	3 0

	Price.	With Postage.
	s. d.	*s. d.*
(xi.) School Supply in Scotland: a Return showing by Counties for each School District in Scotland the Rateable Value, the School Rate, the Population, the Number of Children of School Age (5–14), and the Amount of Accommodation and the Number in Average Attendance in Public Schools, State-aided Schools (non-Public), other Elementary Schools recognised as efficient, Higher Class Public Schools, Higher Class Schools (non-Public), Technical Schools under the management of the School Board, Technical Schools not under the management of the School Board. 1897 - -	1 2	1 6
(xii.) Education (Scotland) Acts:—		
1872 (General) - - - -	1 1½	1 2½
1873 (Highland Schools) - - -	0 1½	0 2
1878 (General) - - - -	0 6	0 6½
1882 (Teachers' dismissal) - -	0 1½	0 2
1883 (General) - - - -	0 3	0 3½
1887 (Technical Schools) - -	0 0½	0 1
1890 (Blind and Deaf Mutes) - -	0 0½	0 1
1893 (Day Industrial Schools) - -	0 1	0 1½
1893 (Reformatory Schools) - -	0 0½	0 1
(xiii.) Report of Departmental Committee on the Conditions of School Attendance and Child Labour in Great Britain. 1893 - -	0 2½	0 3½
(xiv.) Report on Sloyd and Kindergarten Occupations in the Elementary School, by Mr. J. Struthers, one of Her Majesty's Inspectors of Schools in Scotland - - -	0 1½	0 2
(xv.) Syllabus for drawing in Elementary Schools (illustrated) - - - -	0 4½	0 5½
(xvi.) Annual Report of the Commissioners for National Education in Ireland for 1895 -	0 4½	0 6
Appendix to Sixty-second Report -	3 10	4 4
(xvii.) Correspondence between the Irish Government and the Commissioners of National Education in Ireland as to certain proposed changes in the Rules (relating to Religious Instruction), under which grants are made by Parliament for Elementary Education in Ireland. 1893–5. 2 parts - - -	0 9	0 11
(xviii.) Return relating to National Education in Ireland; attendances, salaries of teachers, results, Training Colleges, &c. 1892 -	1 6	1 10
(xix.) Return of National Schools in Ireland, Teachers, Grants received, &c. - -	3 1	3 6
(xx.) Report of Departmental Committee on National School Teachers' (Ireland) Pension Fund. 1897 - - - - -	0 1½	0 2
(xxi.) First Report of the Commission on Manual and Practical Instruction in Primary Schools under the Board of National Education in Ireland. 1897 - - - -	0 10½	1 1½
(Minutes of Evidence at first seven public sittings. Other volumes to follow.)		
(xxii.) National Education (Ireland) Acts:—		
1875, c. 82 (Teachers' Residences) - -	0 1½	0 2
1875, c. 96 (Payment of Teachers) - -	0 1½	0 2
1879, c. 74 (Teachers' Pensions and Residences) - - - - - -	0 4½	0 5

	Price.	With Postage.
(xxii.) National Education (Ireland) Acts—*cont.*	*s. d.*	*s. d.*
1884, c. 22 (Schools and Training College Loans)	0 1½	0 2
1892, c. 42 (Education)	0 2	0 2½
1893, c. 41 (Education)	0 0½	0 1
MEMORANDUM on OFFICIAL PAPERS bearing on the WORK of the COMMISSIONERS of NATIONAL EDUCATION in IRELAND.		
[This memorandum has been kindly furnished by the Right Hon. C. T. Redington, D.L., Resident Commissioner of National Education in Ireland.]		
1. The Board of National Education was formed under the conditions set forth in Mr. Stanley's letter of October 1831. (*See* Powis Commission Report, Vol. I., Part I.)	6 4	6 10
2. In 1884 a Charter of Incorporation was granted to the Board, giving the Commissioners, *inter alia*, power to hold land, to erect and support schools, and to provide for the education of the poor of Ireland generally out of funds furnished by Parliament. (*See* Powis Commission Report, Vol. VII.)	6 0	6 6
3. In 1861 a new Charter was granted to the Board. This Charter increased the number of Commissioners to 20 of whom 10 were to be Roman Catholics and 10 Protestants, and continued the powers given by the preceding Charter. (*See* Powis Commission Report, Vol. VII.)		
4. The Commissioners make Rules and Regulations from time to time under the privileges granted by the original letter of Mr. Stanley, and under their Charters, subject, however, in most cases to the concurrence of the Treasury and the Lord Lieutenant.		
5. The Government introduces from time to time changes in the National System with the consent of the Commissioners, but without an Act of Parliament. In this way the Results System of payments was originated, and the System of Grants to the Training Colleges. The Commissioners frame Rules for carrying out the wishes of the Government in such cases.		
6. The operations of the Commissioners are also carried on under Regulations framed in accordance with the under-mentioned Acts of Parliament :—		
(*a.*) 38 & 39 Vict. c. 82.—An Act to afford facilities for the erection, enlargement, improvement, and purchase of dwelling-houses for residences for Teachers of certain National Schools in Ireland. (13th August 1875)	0 1½	0 2
(*b.*) 38 & 39 Vict. c. 96.—An Act to provide for additional payments to Teachers of National Schools in Ireland. (13th August, 1875)	0 1½	0 2
(*c.*) 42 & 43 Vict. c. 74.—An Act for improving the position of the Teachers of National Schools in Ireland. (15th August 1879)	0 4½	0 5

	Price.	With Postage.
	s. d.	*s. d.*
2. Report of Royal Commission on the Blind, Deaf, and Dumb of the United Kingdom. 4 vols. 1889 - - - - - - - - Vol. 1. Report o.p.	14 7	15 6
3. Report of Departmental Committee on the Education of Children of Defective Intellect (England and Wales). (Will appear shortly) - -	—	—
V.—Secondary Education.		
1. Annual Reports of the Charity Commissioners (containing much information on educational endowments and the working of the Welsh Intermediate Education Act). Forty-fourth Report. 1897 - - - - - -	0 3	0 4
2. Return of Pupils receiving Instruction in Public and Private Secondary Schools in England (excluding Monmouthshire). June 1, 1897. (At Press) - - - - - - -	—	—
3. Annual Report of the Science and Art Department with Appendices and Supplement. 1896. 2 vols. Forty-third Report - - - - - Supplement to Report - - - -	1 10 2 9	2 2 3 2
4. Calendar, History, and General Summary of Regulations of the Department of Science and Art (Annual). 1897 - - - - -	1 7	1 11
5. The Directory of the Science and Art Department or Code of Rules for establishing and conducting Science and Art Schools and Classes. (Annual)	0 6	0 10
6. Annual Report of the Committee of Council on Education in Scotland (containing a section on secondary education) - - - - -	2 6	2 11
7. Return showing by Counties, &c. (Scotland) the Amount of Accommodation and the Number in Average Attendance in—IV. Higher Class Public Schools; V. Higher Class Non-Public Schools. 1897. [C.—8492] - - - - -	1 2	1 6
8. Annual Report of the Intermediate Education Board for Ireland. 1896 - - -	0 7	0 9
9. Annual Report of the Commissioners of Education in Ireland. 1896. (Educational Endowments) -	0 4	0 5½
Schools Inquiry Commission, 1868.		
Vol. 1. Report. o.p.		
Vol. 2. Miscellaneous Papers - - - - -	2 0	2 4
Vol. 3. Answers respecting Endowed Grammar Schools	2 6	2 11
Vol. 4. Evidence (February to July 1865) - -	4 6	5 0
Vol. 5. Do. (November 1865 to July 1866) -	5 6	6 0
Vol. 6. General Reports of Assistant Commissioners: (Scottish Burgh Schools and Foreign Countries) - - -	2 9	3 1
Vol. 7. Do. (Southern Counties) - - -	3 9	4 2
Vol. 8. Do. (Midland Counties and Northumberland) - - - -	3 9	4 2
Vol. 9. Do. (Northern Counties) - - -	4 9	5 3

	Price.	With Postage.
	s. d.	*s. d.*
Vol. 10. Special Reports of Assistant Commissioners: (London Division)	1 8	2 0
Vol. 11. Do. (South-Eastern Counties)	2 8	3 1
Vol. 12. Do. (South-Midland Counties)	3 0	3 5
Vol. 13. Do. (Eastern Counties)	2 6	2 11
Vol. 14. Do. (South-Western Counties)	3 0	3 5
Vol. 15. Do. (West-Midland Division)	4 6	5 0
Vol. 16. Do. (North-Midland Division)	3 0	3 5
Vol. 17. Do. (North-Western Division)	3 4	3 9
Vol. 18. Do. (Yorkshire)	3 9	4 2
Vol. 19. Do. (Northern Division)	2 6	2 11
Vol. 20. Do. (Monmouthshire and Wales.) o.p.		
Vol. 21. Do. Tables	3 8	4 1
Maps of South-East, South-West, and Northern portion of England - each	1 0	1 2

Reports of Royal Commissions, &c., on Secondary Education.

10. Report of Royal Commission on Secondary Education in England. 1895. 9 vols.		
Vol. 1. Report of Commissioners	1 11	2 3
Vols. 2–4. Evidence	4 8	5 1
Vol. 5. Memoranda by Commissioners and others	2 9	3 2
Vols. 6–7. Reports of Assistant Commissioners	4 10	5 3
Vol. 8. Summary and Index	0 10½	1 1½
Vol. 9. Statistical Tables	1 9	2 1
11. Joint Memorandum from the Incorporated Association of Headmasters and Mr. Laurie on matters of public interest connected with the Report of the Royal Commission on Secondary Education. 1897	0 3½	0 4½
12. Report of the Departmental Committee on the Condition of Intermediate and Higher Education in Wales and Monmouthshire. 1881. 2 vols.		
Vol. 1. Report	1 2	1 6
Vol. 2. Evidence	9 8	10 6
13. Report of the Select Committee on the Endowed Schools Act (1869). 1873. o.p.		
14. Report of Select Committee on the operations of the Endowed Schools Acts. 1886–87. 4 parts	10 6	11 6
15. Report of Select Committee on the Charity Commission. 1894	4 3	4 9
16. Report of Departmental Committee appointed by the Treasury, 1893 (presided over by Sir Robert Hamilton) to inquire into the Department of the Charity Commission. 1895	0 1½	0 2
17. Return of Copies of Objections and Suggestions received by the Charity Commissioners in relation to the Central Scheme published by the Charity Commissioners in pursuance of "The City of London Parochial Charities Act, 1883," &c., with Memorandum on Technical Institutions, on Institutions combining Recreation with Instruction, and on Free Libraries. 1890	2 5	2 9
18. Reports of Royal Commissioners on the Endowed Schools and Hospitals in Scotland. 1873–75. 5 parts	13 4	14 4

	Price.	With Postage.
	s. d.	*s. d.*
19. Reports of Commissioners appointed under the Endowed Institutions (Scotland) Act, 1880. 3 parts	6 4	7 0
20. Reports of the Educational Endowments (Scotland) Commission appointed under the Act of 1882. 7 parts	13 0	14 0
21. Report of Committee on the Distribution of the Grant in Aid of Secondary Education in Scotland. 1892	1 7½	2 0
22. Report of the Royal Commission on the Endowment, Funds, and Condition of all Schools endowed for the purpose of Education in Ireland. 2 vols. 1881.		
Report	5 6	6 0
Evidence	6 9	7 4
23. Reports of Commissioners appointed under the Educational Endowments (Ireland) Act, 1885 to prepare schemes for the better administration of Educational Endowments. 1886–94. 9 parts	34 0	—
24. Report of the Royal Commission (Lord Clarendon's) appointed to inquire into the Revenues, Management, and Studies of certain Colleges and Schools. 4 vols. 1864 (Eton; Winchester; Westminster; Charterhouse; St. Paul's; Merchant Taylors'; Harrow; Rugby; Shrewsbury.)	20 0	21 6
25. Return of Statutes, Schemes, and Regulations made under the Public Schools Acts by the Public Schools Commissioners, Sept. 1874. 1876 (Eton; Winchester; Westminster; Shrewsbury; Rugby; Harrow; Charterhouse.)	1 2	1 6
26. Acts of Parliament:		
Charitable Trusts Act, 1853	0 10⅓	0 11½
„ „ 1855	0 4⅔	0 5
„ „ 1860	0 3	0 3½
„ „ 1862	0 1½	0 2
„ „ 1869	0 3	0 3½
„ „ 1887	0 1	0 1½
„ „ 1891	0 1⅓	0 2
Endowed Schools Act, 1869	0 7⅔	0 8
„ „ 1873	0 4⅔	0 5
„ „ 1874	0 1⅔	0 2
Welsh Intermediate Education Act, 1889	0 1½	0 2
Technical Instruction Act, 1889	0 1	0 1½
„ „ 1891	0 1	0 1½
Local Taxation (Customs and Excise) Act, 1890	0 1	0 1½
Charity Inquiries (Expenses) Act, 1892	0 0½	0 1
27. Return of Allocation of Funds for Technical Education by Local Authorities, Great Britain and Ireland. 1896 (This shows amounts granted for scientific education in Endowed Schools, &c. by the Local Authorities.)	1 6	1 10
28. Report of the Committee appointed to inquire into the Distribution of Science and Art Grants. 1897	0 11	1 2
29. Report of Select Committee on the Teachers' Registration and Organisation Bills. 1891	3 3	3 8

	Price.	With Postage.
	s. d.	*s. d*
30. Reference should also be made to a series of Reports, now in course of publication by the Charity Commissioners, on the charities of certain districts in England and Wales. They contain much information as to educational endowments. With the exception of the Return on the Charitable Endowments of Denbighshire, these Reports are based on inquiries conducted by the Charity Commissioners under the Charities Inquiries (Expenses) Act, 1892:—		
Return on the Charitable Endowments of Denbighshire. 1893 - - -	4 2	4 9
Reports on the Charities of 26 parishes and two liberties in London - - -	18 4	20 0
Reports on 138 parishes in the West Riding of Yorkshire.		
Reports on Charities in the parish of Halifax. 1896 - - - - -	3 6	4 0
Reports on Charities in Bradford and Sheffield.		
Reports on Charities of Leeds (in preparation).		
Report on Charities in the County of Merioneth.		
Reports on Charities in the Administrative County of Glamorgan and in the County of Flint (in preparation).		
Report on the Charities of the County Boroughs of Cardiff and Swansea.		
(*Cp.* the 44th Report of the Charity Commissioners for England and Wales (1897), pp. 12, 13) - - - - -	0 3	0 4
VI.—Technical Education.		
(Some of these papers are also given above under the heading "Secondary Education.")		
1. Calendar, History, and General Summary of Regulations of the Department of Science and Art. 1897 - - - - -	1 7	1 11
2. Annual Report of the Science and Art Department. 1897 - - - - - -	2 7	3 0
3. The Directory or Code of Rules for establishing Science and Art Schools and Classes. 1897 -	0 6	0 10
4. Annual Return of the Science and Art Department. 1897.		
5. Report of the Committee appointed to inquire into the Distribution of the Science and Art Grants. 1897 - - - - -	0 11	1 2
6. Return of application of funds on Technical Education by the Local Authorities. 1896 - -	1 6	1 10
7. Report of the Royal Commission on Technical Instruction. 6 parts. 1882–84.		
First Report. Preliminary. 1882 - -	0 4	0 5½
Second Report. Vol. I. Technical Education on the Continent. 1884 -	3 2	3 6
" Vol. II. Agricultural Education Abroad, and in Canada and the United States. 1884 - - -	o.p.	—

	Price.	With Postage.
	s. d.	*s. d.*
Second Report. Vol. III. Miscellaneous Reports - - -	o.p.	—
„ Vol. IV. Evidence, &c. -	2 10	3 2
„ Vol. V. Plans, &c. - -	6 0	6 4
8. Report on a Visit to Germany with a view of ascertaining the recent progress of Technical Education in that Country. (By Sir P. Magnus and Messrs. G. R. Redgrave, Swire Smith and W. Woodall, M.P.) 1896 - - -	0 2½	0 3½
9. Report on the Examination of the Science and Technical Teaching in Blair Lodge School, Polmont, and in other schools in Scotland, by Professor A. Kennedy. 1888 - - -	0 1½	0 2
10. Acts of Parliament:		
Technical Instruction Act, 1889 - -	0 1	0 1½
„ „ „ 1891 - -	0 1	0 1½
Local Taxation (Customs and Excise) Act, 1890	0 1	0 1½
11. Return of Charity Commissioners of copies of certain objections and suggestions relative to the Central Scheme published by the Charity Commissioners in pursuance of "The City of London Parochial Charities Act, 1883," for the regulation of Charities in London, and of Memoranda and Reports on Technical Instruction, on Institutions combining Recreation with Education and on Free Libraries - - - - - -	2 5	2 9
VII.—Universities and University Colleges.		
1. Report of Royal Commissioners appointed to inquire into the property and income of the Universities of Oxford and Cambridge. 3 vols. 1873 - - - - - -	17 9	—
2. Reports from the University Colleges participating in the Government Grant (annual). 1896 -	1 9	2 1
3. Report of Committee, appointed by the Treasury, on the University Colleges of Great Britain. 1897 - - - - - -	0 8	0 10½
4. Report of Royal Commission on the kind of University or powers required for the advancement of Higher Education in London. 1889 -	3 9	4 2
5. Draft Charter for the proposed Gresham University, London. 1892 - - - - -	0 2	0 2½
6. Report of the Commissioners appointed to consider the draft Charter for the proposed Gresham University in London. 2 vols:—		
Vol. 1. Report - - - -	0 6	0 8
Vol. 2. Evidence - - - -	11 0	12 0
7. Charter of the University of Wales - -	0 2	0 3
8. Report of Royal Commissioners appointed to inquire into the Universities of Scotland. 4 vols. 1878:—		
Vols. I. and IV. o.p.		
Vol. II. - - - - - -	5 2	5 8
Vol. III. - - - - - -	2 11	3 3
9. Report of Commissioner on certain matters relating to Trinity College, Dublin. 1878 - -	1 2	1 6
10. Annual Report on the condition and progress of the Royal University of Ireland. 1896 -	0 1½	0 2

——	Price.	With Postage.
	s. d.	*s. d.*
11. Annual Report of the President of the Queen's College, Belfast. 1895–6 - - -	0 3	0 4
12. Annual Report of the President of the Queen's College, Cork. 1896–7 - - - -	0 1½	0 2
13. Annual Report of the President of the Queen's College, Galway. 1895–6 - - -	0 1½	0 2

EDUCATION DEPARTMENT LIBRARY,
43, Parliament Street, S.W.

The Reference Library of the Education Department is open to readers daily at 43, Parliament Street, S.W., from 10 a.m. to 5 p.m. (Saturdays to 2 p.m.), except on the days on which the Department is closed, viz.:—New Year's Day, Good Friday, Easter Eve, Easter Monday, the Queen's Birthday, Whit Monday, three days at Christmas, and any other days that may from time to time be fixed as public holidays.

The Library contains foreign and other official reports on public education, and copies of British and foreign educational newspapers and magazines. The greater part of the English and foreign works on pedagogy and educational administration, formerly kept at the South Kensington Museum, have been transferred to, and amalgamated with, the Library of the Education Department; but the books on Natural Science, as well as the general section of the Library and the works of reference needed by students preparing themselves for examinations, remain, as heretofore, in the Science Library at the South Kensington Museum.

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SPECIAL REPORTS

ON

EDUCATIONAL SUBJECTS,

1896-7.

Vol I

Presented to both Houses of Parliament by Command of Her Majesty.

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The following is a list of some of the more important Parliamentary
Publications recently issued:—

Parliamentary:

Statutes—

Public General, Session 1896. With Index, Tables, &c. Cloth.

Second Revised Edition. By authority. Vol. I. A.D. 1235–1713. Vo
1714–1800. Vol. III. A.D. 1801–1814. Vol. IV. A.D. 1814–18
A.D. 1830–1836. Vol. VI. A.D. 1837–1842. Vol. VII. A.D.
Vol. VIII. A.D. 1847–1852. Vol. IX. A.D. 1852–1857. Vol. X. A.D
Vol. XI. A.D. 1863–1867. Vol. XII. A.D. 1868–1871. Roy. 8vo. Bo
Price

Revised Editions. Tables showing subsequent Repeals, effected by Act
58 & 59 Vict. 1895. Roy. 8vo. 34 pp. Stitched.

Statutes in Force. Index to. Thirteenth Edition. To the end of
58 & 59 Vict. 2 Vols. Roy. 8vo. Cloth.

The Statutory Rules and Orders revised. Statutory Rules and Orders
those of a Local, Personal, or Temporary Character, issued prior to 18
in force. Vols. I. to VIII. Pr

Statutory Rules and Orders other than those of a Local, Personal, o
Character. With a List of the more important Statutory Orders
Character arranged in classes; and an Index. Roy. 8vo. Boa
in the years 1890, 1891, 1892, 1893, 1894, 1895, and 1896. Pr

Statutory Rules and Orders in force on 1st January 1893. Index to.

Statutory Rules and Orders, 1897. Registered under the Rules Publ
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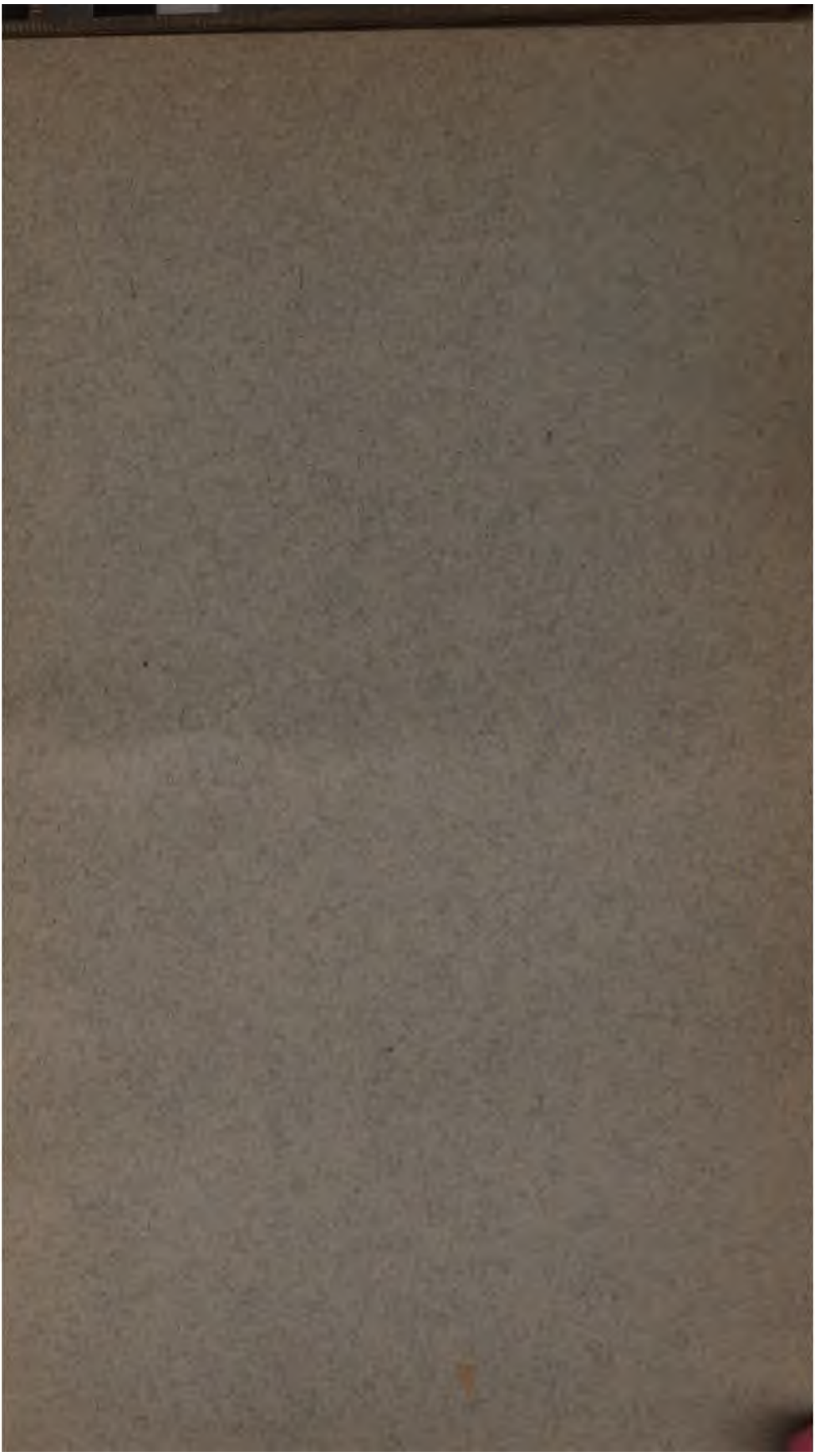
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